

## SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

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### SOME THINGS THAT OUR COLLEGES MAY JUSTLY DEMAND OF THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

THE very name and existence of this journal imply a definite relation between our colleges and preparatory schools. How intimate the relation is, and how mutually interdependent school and college are, can perhaps best be appreciated by those who have taught successive classes in both. The best work in our secondary schools is done by those who are spurred on by the inspiration of the anticipated college course; and, on the contrary, only those who have received careful, accurate, and thorough training beforehand can to-day make their mark in the college class-room. The constant tendency to raise the requirements for admission to college to a higher standard has already accomplished at least one result: namely, that the self-made, self-prepared, hard-headed, hard-working country boy, who came up to his entrance examinations without much actual knowledge, but relying on his grit to work him up to an honorable, or possibly a foremost place in his class, has been put under such a tremendous disadvantage as to be practically crowded out of the race. Possibly this is not an entirely unmixed blessing; but whatever objection could be made to it must be overwhelmingly overruled by the immense gain on every side to both school and college. The result has been that the best material is for the most part brought into the preparatory school; the grade of work done there is constantly raised as the college demands it; and the finished product of both institu-

tions — the baccalaureate candidate in all his glory of dress-coat and nose-gays — receives a sheepskin that implies a higher, a broader, a deeper culture.

It is in the north and east mainly, however, that this state of things is coming rapidly to be the rule rather than the exception. In the great south and the great west secondary education is to a very large extent yet somewhat disorganized, of low grade, and cursed by the opposition of ignorance and by the struggle against poverty and against quackery. That this fact more than anything else retards the progress of all the colleges in those same sections of the country is too evident to require any argument, but cannot be too often or too loudly emphasized. In this state of North Carolina, for example, whose area is just about the same as that of New York, and which supports not only a State University but also several denominational colleges, there are but about a half-dozen private schools that pretend to prepare students according to the University standards, and probably not a single public school that carries its pupils through the prescribed course. The natural effect upon the University is to prevent it from raising its standards as rapidly as it otherwise would; while the effect upon the preparatory schools is to diminish their usefulness; for parents send their sons to the University before they are ready, because it is cheaper there than at the private schools!

As in all other departments of human activity and progress, so in the matter of educational standards the great law of demand and supply is a controlling factor. In order to realize the ideal state of things, where school and college shall be but complements in a perfect union, working together in harmony as equally important parts of a complex and highly developed organism, each institution must demand the support of the other. The college must supply the demand of the school for recognition, for encouragement in right methods, for well-trained teachers, for a proper amount of time allotted to the completion of its work. The school must supply the demand of the college for such preparatory work as shall truly fit the average Freshman to go on intelligently and successfully with whatever work

confronts him at the beginning of his college course. And it is worse than idle to say that it is useless to make such demands; for the experience of the last generation in our most highly educated communities proves beyond a doubt that the preparatory schools are eager to advance to the position which the colleges ask them to take, and that the higher the grade of work attempted before entering college, the more successful has been its accomplishment. It is, moreover, incumbent upon the college to take the initiative in such demands, on account of its wealth, its learning, its right to lead in educational matters, its responsibility before the public.

If, then, it be granted that the ideal relations between our schools and colleges have as yet been hardly realized, and if it has been fairly shown that the colleges not only may, but ought to demand much of the preparatory schools, we have to face the question, What, under the existing state of things, may be justly demanded? It is evident, at the start, that there are many things, in themselves eminently desirable, that must not be expected, nor even asked for. The school cannot create brains. A certain *per cent* of students never ought to attempt preparation for college, and are yet always to be looked for in preparatory classes so long as fond parents have their being. Even here the school can render a great service to the whole student body by shutting such incapables out of their higher classes through a system of rigid examinations, thus practically preventing them from ever reaching college halls. The school, moreover, cannot be expected to be entirely responsible for the meagre knowledge and unscholarly methods of those who have taken but a partial course under its guidance. A poorly endowed school cannot be expected to furnish all the facilities for the most satisfactory work that its wealthy competitor can, and even yet may, because of its situation or other peculiar circumstances, deserve the heartiest encouragement in its well-directed efforts toward a higher plane. Furthermore, the school must not be asked to enlarge its curriculum too rapidly beyond an average standard. Desirable as it may be to raise the college requirements in many particulars, the growth of the average

school curriculum beyond the ability to supply what is now asked by the majority of respectable colleges will be exceedingly slow. Gradually we may look for an advance all along the line, in science, in modern languages, in Greek and Latin, but it will come only after years of struggle on the part of the advocates for their several departments.

Turning from the negative to the positive side of our question, the first and foremost demand that the colleges have a right to make on the preparatory schools is that a conscientious effort shall be steadily made to complete thoroughly the college requirements. If the Freshman comes up to his entrance examinations saying that in his school they read only two books of Vergil, or study but half the required algebra, the result is that he is admitted on conditions, his whole college course is crippled thereby, and the school that sent him up as prepared receives and deserves severe censure for being responsible for that unhappy state of things. Not only this, but the rest of his class are compelled to wait while he makes desperate attempts to flounder through depths too great for him, and themselves lose interest in the work that is being carried on under such disadvantages. The work of the college is therefore dragged down to the level of the preparatory school, and the excuse sounds only too plausible that given standards cannot be insisted upon because the students are not properly prepared.

School boards, school trustees, and school faculties far transcend their prerogative when they undertake to decide how far it is best that the institutions whose interests they are appointed to conserve shall carry out the work specified in college requirements. If in any section of the country Greek, or geometry, or Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe* happens to be in especial disfavor in public opinion, or a notion is prevalent that college education should not require a previous knowledge of some one branch of learning, it does not therefore become those who control preparatory school curricula forthwith to decide that no instruction shall be furnished in the tabooed subject. The college curricula have reached the same general standard, and require the same general subjects for admission as the result of the development



of centuries; and that some poor, or ignorant, or prejudiced section of this great new western world of ours chances to look with disfavor upon a certain one of those subjects is no reason for omitting or discontinuing its study in the great public or private schools. No one is compelled by statute law to prepare for college; if the public frowns on Homer's *Iliad*, the public has the privilege of letting it alone; but the business of any educational system is to afford the opportunity to those who desire to prepare for college. If in any state or section of country the colleges require eight orations of Cicero, let the schools see to it that their pupils read eight; if the college catalogues put under their admission requirements "algebra through quadratics," let not the schools finish their instruction in algebra at equations of one unknown quantity. In this matter it must reluctantly be admitted that the majority of preparatory schools in all sections of the land are still more or less deficient. For example, Roman history, Latin composition, ancient geography, and mythology are nominally required for admission to most of our respectable colleges; but every college Latin teacher knows how rare is the student who has had thorough training in one of these subjects, not to say in the whole four. In many cases the preparatory courses in these studies are either wholly lacking or entirely insufficient; in other cases they have not been sufficiently emphasized by careless or incapable teachers.

This brings us to the second general demand that may be made on the schools; namely, that faithful work in details be insisted on in both teacher and pupil, with no tolerance of any disposition to slight certain parts of the work on account of either ignorance or cranky notions. A teacher has no right to excuse himself from teaching his pupils to scan Latin hexameter verse because he may chance himself to have an unmusical ear, or may happen to be infected with the notion that scanning is an unimportant matter. The largest liberty may be allowed to any teacher to assert his individuality by emphasizing any particular part of the preparatory work that has especial attractions or interest for him, so long as he does not thereby compel the slighting of any other part, which may possibly not appeal so

much to his sympathies. In other words, he may do any part of the work as well as he chooses, but must not leave any part of the prescribed work undone.

In violation of this principle there are certain subjects in our preparatory courses to which justice is seldom done. For example, take the use and the distinguishing of the Latin conjugations. *Sed, autem, vero, at; etiam, quoque; nam, namque, enim, etenim; etsi, quamquam, quamvis, quamlibet*—the mere mention of these various groups of words brings confusion to the average boy and blank despair to many a teacher. The consequence is that the sentences which the same boy makes when he tries to translate Latin in his Freshman year are but collections of dry bones of disjointed ideas, rattling against each other with a discordant sound, and having none of the life and vigor of organized, progressive thought. A similar lack of accurate knowledge is usually apparent in the case of the Latin indefinite pronouns; and we are all quite too familiar with the favorite response to an inquiry regarding almost any locality mentioned in classical geography, "It is an island in the Ægean Sea"! In Latin composition, again, the lack of thorough and systematic training in the schools is very generally felt by all colleges. Far too often the teacher himself has shirked this important work because it implied too much hard work for himself, or work beyond his ability; and not until recent years has any reasonable method of making the study both attractive and effective been invented by our best teachers.

In every department there are such weak spots which are annually discovered at the college entrance examinations, partly to be accounted for by these omissions of teachers, and partly by the neglect of the third demand which our colleges may justly make on the schools: namely, the demand that common-sense methods shall be employed. Imagine a boy who has just entered college, called up to read the following familiar sentence from the first chapter of Livy's history of the war with Hannibal: "*Fama est etiam, Hannibalem annorum ferme novem, pueriliter blandientem patri Hamilcari, ut duceretur in Hispaniam, quum, perfecto Africo bello, exercitum eo traiecturus*

*sacrificaret, altaribus admotum, se, quum primum posset, hostem fore populo Romano.*" Here is his rendering: "There is a story that Hannibal, when about nine years old, boyishly coaxed his father that he might be taken in Spain. The African war being completed at that time; he was sacrificing previously to transporting his army thither. Being conducted to the altar, touching the sacrifices, he was bound by an oath to prove himself as soon as he was able, an enemy to the Roman people." Perhaps his next neighbor translates it thus: "It is also said that Hannibal, about nine years of age, boyishly coaxed to his father Hamilcar, that he might be led into Spain. When the African war being finished, the army about to be thrown across, he sacrificed it; he was led to the altar, touching the sacrifice, by taking an oath, that when he was first able he would be an enemy to the Roman people." These are examples taken from actual experience, which illustrate two things, — the lack of grasp upon the Latin sentence as a whole, and the lack of acquaintance with the English language as an instrument for the conveyance of connected thought. For both faults the preparatory school is responsible. There is a lack of common-sense method somewhere when the boy is allowed to drift on year after year without a clear conception of the difference between the active and the passive voice, between a transitive and an intransitive verb, between a temporal and a causal clause, between the prepositions "in" and "into." And the lack is just as evident when the general principles of language and expression cannot be applied to a Latin sentence so that the proper relation between the various parts, subjects, predicates, clauses, shall be maintained, and the sentence as read present a clear-cut, continuous thought, modified in various ways according to the purpose of the original writer. In our first quoted example the student has cut the knot by resolving the sentence into three; in the second instance work was begun on the same plan, but a later attempt to combine the true with the false method resulted in a hopeless confusion of ridiculous clauses. The moral is not far to seek. First, in the preparatory school, the English language as an instrument of thought and expression must be

insisted upon; secondly, when applied to the Latin sentence the constructive process must be employed in bringing it to represent the Latin thought; the main statement must have grouped around it, one by one, all its modifying and explanatory statements properly connected by conjunctions, until the mind of the pupil can not only grasp the thought in its entirety, but can also express it in idiomatic English. If, instead of that, his attention has been occupied solely with the meaning of new words, and the syntax of individual words, as they might successively occur, he has plodded hopelessly along in ignorance of the perfection and beauty of the author's thought, and without cultivating his own powers of expression. Common-sense methods are too often lacking in all departments of school work, and the modern interest in pedagogy cannot but be a boon to our schools in more ways than may be calculated.

From this division of the subject it is an easy step to the fourth and last demand to be mentioned in this article, possibly a more important one than any of those previously discussed. It is that the schools shall seek to impress upon the plastic minds committed to their care not so much mere facts and formulæ as thoughts and principles. The pedantic teacher, who explains a grammatical construction by referring to "Section 331, f., Remark," may exhibit some familiarity with his grammar and some powers of memory, but is hardly helping the pupil to understand the principle that would be found at the place mentioned, if time were taken to look the matter up then and there and explain the subject carefully. Classes are sometimes taught to memorize a list of numbered rules to explain almost any point that may arise, and when the question is put, the answer comes, "Rule 26 says so-and-so." "Mr. A," says another instructor, "what sort of a conditional sentence is this?" "A conditional sentence of the third form," replies the student; but too often he cannot tell what he means by that, nor can he understand a new teacher who may chance to characterize instead of number the form of sentence. "Mr. B, what is the reason that *faceret* is in the subjunctive mood?" "Because it is in a relative clause," is the sanguine reply of the

unhappy youth, who has not been taught that such critical acumen is absolutely worthless as regards the subject in hand. And being permitted to suppose himself correct in such answers, he applies his rule to all sorts of cases as a sufficient reason for the peculiarity in question. "Mr. C, what is the syntax of *Italiam*?" "It is in the accusative, after the preposition *in*!" And so through the fact the boy is led into the fallacy.

In Mr. Collar's admirable Latin Composition is this sentence: "Cæsar says that this part began at the river Rhone." If any one doubts the tendency in our schools to learn and teach facts rather than principles, let him study the following variety of Latin renderings of that sentence, a few authentic examples only from the many:—

1. *Cæsar dixit id hic pars coepit a flumen Rhodanum.*
2. *Cæsar dicit, ille pars ad flumine Rhene.*
3. *Cæsar inquit ut hoc pars cepit flumine Rhodano.*
4. *Cæsar dicet ut hic pars in flumine Rhone*— [Subj.].
5. *Cæsar dixit quæ partem ab flumine Rhine.*
6. *Cæsar dixit ut hæc pars flumen Rhonum.*
7. *Cæsar dixit, ut id pars coepit flumine Reno.*

"But," interposes the aggrieved youth that wrote the first of these sentences, "doesn't *id* mean that?" "And doesn't *ad* mean at?" chimes in his neighbor. "Isn't *ut* the word that means that?" cries the third. "And doesn't *ut* take the subjunctive?" demands the next—and so on to the end of the chapter. Yet how could they be expected to write the sentence correctly unless they have first understood not only the thought to be expressed, but also the principles that apply to such expression in the Latin tongue? There is no class of students that is so much in danger of being made to suffer, in the present and future tenses, for what they are not responsible for, as those preparing for college; too frequently they are compelled in the present to learn what they ought not to learn, and in the future they discover all too late that what they ought to have learned they were never taught.

It may be doubted if any well-informed reader will fail to

admit that the colleges have a right to make the foregoing demands on the preparatory schools. The list is not a comprehensive one, but may be suggestive. On the part of the schools, in attempting to supply what is thus demanded, it need not be forgotten that there is a law of the survival of the fittest, which may demand that some fond hopes, centred in a son's higher education, must be blighted. In the early days of a boy's school training there should be all indulgence and patience on the part of the teacher, in the attempt to understand the individuality of the young mind and adapt the teaching to it. Every effort is to be made to interest the pupil in the work laid out before him, and every allowance must be made for inherent stupidity, untoward circumstances, or unfavorable influences. But as the boy begins to ripen into manhood and is approaching a college course, there ceases to be any legitimate place for sentimentality in the standards by which his work is to be judged. It is scant kindness to precipitate him, without a solid preparation in all fundamentals, into the rushing current of college life. He may possibly swim on slowly and painfully, far behind his stronger competitors; but it is not unlikely that he will either be caught on a snag of despair or sink irrevocably in the depths of vice.

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## TALKS ON TEACHING LATIN.

### III.

*Senior, Tyro, and Miss Meyn.*

IT was late in the month of March, but there were not yet many tokens that spring was near. The ground was still covered with snow, except where it had melted in small patches, and a cold wind moaned in chimneys, and tree-tops, and around the corners of houses. An hour after sunset the stars shone out with the keen glitter of winter, and the chill in the air was changed to a frosty sharpness.

As Tyro and Miss Meyn turned a corner and passed by the library windows of Senior's house, they saw him, for the curtains had not been drawn, sitting by an open fire reading. They stopped a moment and questioned whether it would not be better to walk on for a quarter of an hour and not interrupt him just then; but they knew that he expected them, and the cheerfulness of the room seemed to beckon them in. They rang the bell, and as they entered, Senior met them with a cordial welcome.

*Sen.* I am exceedingly glad you have come. I was almost afraid you had forgotten the time.

*Ty.* No, but when Miss Meyn and I saw that you were reading, we hesitated about breaking in upon you; but it looked so comfortable and inviting in here that we ventured to do it.

*Sen.* I hope, Miss Meyn, you didn't hesitate long?

*Miss Meyn.* Oh, no! only a moment. It was too cold to deliberate long.

*Sen.* I was reading, my dear Tyro, only to divert my mind from the saddest thoughts; but reading is a poor substitute for that purpose for the presence and conversation of friends. So your coming is not in the least inopportune. Besides, the book that I was reading (*handing him the book*), you will see, is one that can be read in snatches.



*Ty.* "*Hours with the Mystics.*" I never knew that you were interested in such writings. *Philo, Plotinus, Porphyry*, the *Bagvat-Gita*, (I wonder what that is) *Jacob Behmen, Swedenborg*, — I hope the book is more interesting than it looks. It looks as dry as shavings. Do you find refreshment and solace in such works?

*Sen.* Yes, sometimes I find sensuous poetry and mysticism the best possible antidotes to that peculiar tendency of mind that the occupation of teaching engenders. I mean a too dry, matter-of-fact, inflexible, I will even say, too logical, a view of things. I recommend for school teachers, above all others, the *Bagvat-Gita* and Emerson, Shelley and Byron. It is worth while sometimes to dream and to give wing to fancy. We get too much absorbed in method and detail, and that is killing to the spirit.

*Ty.* Method and detail! What can we do without them? I supposed the greatest fault of teachers was, not that they have too much method, but too little; not that they studied details excessively, but that they too often were inattentive to details!

*Miss Meyn.* Your remark, Mr. Senior, fairly takes my breath away. The things that you seem to disparage are the very ones that I feel the most need of help in. Perhaps when one has taught a long while, he forgets the steps by which he has arrived at the best ways of doing things, and thinks he has no methods, as I once heard a very clever teacher of much experience say, and so fails to appreciate the vital need of method to one who lacks the insight that comes with time and practice. Or do you advise that we should not trouble ourselves about aims and principles, but simply do what is at hand as well as we can and be content to drift into what is better or best?

*Sen.* Well, there is virtue, too, in drifting. Some of the best things that I have done I have drifted into, not hammered out by dint of hard thinking.

*Ty.* I remember some lines from Wordsworth on drifting, or letting things come of themselves:

Nor less I deem that there are Powers  
Which of themselves our minds impress;

That we can feed this mind of ours  
In a wise passiveness.

*Sen.* That is to the point. But I must complain of a little inadvertency in thinking, on your part, my dear Tyro, a moment ago. I said, "We get too much absorbed in method and detail." Whereupon you ask, "What could we do without method and detail?" Is there, then, no alternative between too much and none at all?

Now, Miss Meyn, I do not disparage method. On the contrary, its value and necessity are undeniable. Only let us not make a fetish of method. That is not the all-in-all. I put first wide and well-digested knowledge of one's subject, then enthusiasm and the free play of intelligence. Given these and a thousand happy inspirations will come to one, out of which will grow the best methods.

*Miss Meyn.* I feel how very seductive the idea of the lines which Mr. Tyro quoted would be to me:—

That we can feed this mind of ours  
In a wise passiveness.

But I am afraid it would not do for a school-teacher to take such a motto. It would do very well for a poet; but we have something else to do, besides "feed this mind of ours"; we must feed the minds of others; and the question that interests me is, How? So I come to you, Mr. Senior, hungering for a little of the knowledge that your experience has gathered. I feel as Lælius says he does, when he comes to Cato, as if I were setting out on a long journey which you have accomplished; and who can advise so well as one who has traversed all the way and knows every turn? There is a certain wisdom and help that cannot be got from books.

*Ty.* Very true, it seems to me, Miss Meyn. I have often felt the need of such help. But why should the aid that a novice in teaching needs not be found in books? Why haven't teachers seen what useful books could be written of personal experience in the schoolroom, showing in minute detail what they do, and how, and why? What mistakes they have made,

and what discoveries? I suspect they are afraid of seeming petty or trivial. But let them sacrifice personal dignity a little, if necessary, for the common good; though for my part, I don't see what there is undignified in treating of the smallest things in education. Often a great principle may be illustrated in a very small matter.

*Miss Meyn.* I am sure I should be grateful for any suggestions from Mr. Senior, however trivial they might seem to him. Till I began to teach Latin, and map out in my own mind some comprehensive scheme for a course of five years, I had no appreciation of the magnitude and difficulty of the task. Unless one is content to try many experiments, to roam about, so to speak, at hap-hazard on a voyage of discovery, instead of making straight for a distant port, one needs chart and compass.

*Sen.* I suppose there must be a good deal of hap-hazard sailing, for the course is, in truth, not well laid down, and it is not quite agreed what port we ought to steer for. I am most willing to help, if I can, and I will do my best. I shall not hesitate to act on your hint, Tyro, and tell of mistakes that I have made. I don't know that I can lay claim to any discoveries; and I will have no fear, Miss Meyn, of touching on trivial points.

As Senior said this, he rose and went to his desk on the other side of the room, and after looking over some papers for a moment, took out one and came back. Meantime Tyro laid two sticks on the fire and was intently watching the blaze. "I have a great weakness," said he, as if to himself, "for an open wood fire. On a cold night, give me a fire like this and a good book *on any subject but education*, and I am perfectly happy." The remark seemed a little *mal à propos*, but neither Senior nor Miss Meyn appeared to notice it. Senior was glancing over the paper which he held, and Miss Meyn was looking at him with an air of expectation.

*Sen.* I remembered that some years ago I wrote out a paper of suggestions for a young teacher who came to me direct from college, and here it is. I may, perhaps, as well read it, and then, if there is time, we will discuss it.

(Reads.) "The first requisite for a teacher of Latin, as for a teacher of anything else, is to know thoroughly his subject. His knowledge should be wide, full, and accurate. His feeling should always be that, however much he knows, he does not know enough. A good preparatory and college training will answer as a foundation, but nothing more. It follows that a teacher of Latin must never cease to be a student of Latin. First there must be the conscientious daily preparation of every lesson, to ensure freshness, accuracy, and readiness in the instruction. This gives the teacher confidence in himself and wins the confidence of his pupils. This creates a joyous sense of freedom, and opens the mind to the access of happy inspirations.

"Whatever drudgery there may be in the sort of review that the teacher may have to make of his schoolboy knowledge is more than compensated by the consciousness of mastery in the recitation hour. The teacher has no business to be doubtful or uncertain, or to have blurred and dim impressions on points on which he requires clear and positive knowledge from his class. I remember well the strong impression made on me by a remark of my principal many, many years ago, when I was teaching my first class in Latin. 'No one,' said he, 'is fit to teach that book, who does not study every page of it as much as he would study a page of Thucydides.' I was teaching from McClintock and Crooks' *First Steps in Latin*. I think that was the title, for I haven't seen it for twenty years; and a simpler, or perhaps I should say, a more *diluted*, treatment of Latin could not well be imagined. It reminds me, as I recall it, of a beginner's book, published in England, with the title, *Latin Without Tears, or One Word a Day*.

"But it is not enough to have well in hand such knowledge of the daily lesson as you require of the pupil, or as you may wish to impart; though I am sure many teachers do not rise to that low level. If one is satisfied with that, there is an end of personal growth and progress. At the end of ten years one finds he has not sensibly enlarged his knowledge. He has beaten

the same little round. Instead of marching he has marked time.

"The colleges of this country have united, for I don't know how long, in encouraging in the most direct manner, I might almost say obliging, classical teachers to mark time instead of marching. See, for example, how little the Latin requirements for admission to college have varied in a generation—substantially the same books of the same authors. The performance of most men does not greatly exceed the demands of their situation. Consequently it is probable that Latin teachers do not generally extend their reading beyond college admission requirements; and as these remain fixed, they do not make any acquisitions to speak of. I trust this will not be true of you. Increasing knowledge will give increasing interest in your work, and what you learn for yourself, as it were, will often in unexpected ways prove apt for instruction.

"You will find it, I think, a good practice to let your private reading run parallel with the reading of your class. For example, I suppose you read, while preparing for college, four books of *Cæsar's Gallic War*, and the rest you probably have never looked at. My advice is that while you are going over the first four books you should read one or more of the remaining books. When you have, in this way, read the whole of the *Gallic War*, take up *Cæsar's Civil War*. So, in the course of two or three years you will have got a good knowledge of the entire contents of both works. Do the same with Ovid, with Virgil, with Cicero, with whatever author you have to deal in the schoolroom. In ten years you may perhaps have read the entire works of all these writers. I make one more suggestion. Let this private reading be of a quite different and much freer sort than the class reading. Read much aloud and translate but little. Re-read and re-read with the sharpest observation, always with pencil in hand, and mark what is new or peculiar in meaning or form of expression.

"But these suggestions are perhaps uncalled for. The practised student will generally discover the ways of studying best suited to himself. The important thing is, as I said, not to

cease to be a student of Latin while one is a teacher of Latin.

"It is far more difficult to give wise counsel to a novice in the art of instruction, as to good, or the best ways of dealing with beginners and the rudiments of Latin.

"Emerson says there is a best way of doing everything, even of boiling an egg. I am not certain that there is one best way of teaching Latin.

"Perhaps we ought to be satisfied, if we can find a good way. It is evident that a method implies an object and that the object must largely determine the method. About the ultimate object there would be no dispute, it is culture; but that does not help us much. Culture must be attained through training or discipline, and discipline is won through the acquisition of knowledge. The value of the discipline will be measured by the amount and kind of knowledge and the method of acquisition. The subject is the Latin language; and the question becomes, what knowledge of Latin is best worth having and how shall it be got in the shortest time? But the question what knowledge need not be determined at the outset in its whole extent. We have only to determine what knowledge is of prime importance as the foundation of subsequent knowledge, and what the process shall be of imparting and acquiring it.

"The first thing to be considered is obviously pronunciation and the reading of Latin. When I learned Latin, and for many years after I began to teach, pronunciation was learned through committing to memory a body of rules and exceptions. Look at the revised edition of Andrews and Stoddard's *Latin Grammar*, which appeared in 1857. There are eight closely printed pages under pronunciation, and my impression is that we used to spend about three solid weeks on those rules and their application. In the best of late books for beginners you will not find a tenth so much, yet I am not aware that Latin is not as well read in school as formerly.

"Moreover, the few rules that are given are altogether unnecessary, if the teacher is competent to instruct. What would one think of a French teacher who taught pronunciation through

rules? Let the teacher pronounce clearly and accurately and have his pupils imitate him. Let him always read the words and Latin exercises that his class are to study, and at the beginning of the lesson go rapidly through them again.

"The ear of the pupil is to be trained, and that must be made a distinct and important object of the early part of the course. The ear must be trained through listening to the teacher. It will be found a useful practice for the teacher often to read a review exercise, while the class listen with books closed. Any pupil who does not understand, that is, who does not take in the meaning, should raise his hand, and the sentence must be repeated, if need be, three or four times.

"The ordinary exercises consisting of detached sentences are not, however, the best material for this practice. Nothing is, or can be, better than easy and interesting dialogues in Latin, which for some time pupils should have read through with the teacher beforehand. Next to such *colloquia*, the best collection of short, easy, interesting anecdotes, admirably suited to the purpose, is to be found in *Gradatim*, a book that has had an enormous sale in England, and which deserves the favor with which it has been received. It is so simple in the beginning that it can be used as a reading book after a class has studied Latin a month. In such connected Latin, whether dialogues or anecdotes, the teacher should constantly illustrate by his reading the right inflections, modulations of the voice, emphasis, and above all the proper grouping of words. Even without admonition his pupils will imitate him, and insensibly, through reading and listening, they come to have a correct feeling for Latin order. We have found of late years that it is unnecessary to say much about the order of words in Latin. Only the dumbest of a class will hand up Latin exercises written in the English order, or in an order that is plainly artificial. The Latin order comes of itself.

"Latin is an admirable instrument for this training of the ear (on this I insist all the more because it is so grievously neglected in education), especially so because attention must be directed to the terminations; to hear most of the word is not



enough, does not enable you to guess the rest, as in your own language; it is the ending that determines the relation. As a training in elocution, I mean in clear and distinct enunciation, what is better than reading in Latin for others to understand? A boy feels that a slovenly, or mumbling, or indistinct utterance is intolerable to his listeners.

"Do not, then, be satisfied with the outcome of the first year's work in Latin, unless you find that the best of a class have acquired some power of understanding easy Latin by the ear alone, and that there has been gained by a majority a fair degree of facility in reading Latin, of which the meaning is known, readily and with expression."

*Miss Meyn.* May I interrupt to ask a question?

*Sen.* By all means. This is a good place to stop. I believe we have had reading enough (*laying down the paper*), so now let us have your question, Miss Meyn.

*Miss Meyn.* Am I right in understanding that you would discard all rules in teaching pronunciation and depend entirely upon the example of the teacher and his corrections?

*Ty.* That is a point that interests me too. It seems to me that rules may be used so as to save a great deal of time. One might suppose that if children heard only correct pronunciation, they would not go wrong. But I don't find that to be true. The teacher would have to correct perpetually, even if his scholars heard only his pronunciation. Of course they do hear mistakes, and there seems to be all the more need of general statements or directions, under which they may bring countless particular instances. For example, I see here is a copy of *Gradatim* lying on your table; I open at the first story, "The Naughty Boy," and read the first sentence: "*Albertus, puer ignāvus, litterās nōn amābat.*" Suppose a boy reads that sentence after his teacher, putting the accent on the antepenult of the last word, *a'mabat*. Do you think it is enough to correct him and do so again and again? Is it not better to define *penult* and *antepenult* and then give him this rule: "*Words of more than two syllables have the accent on the penult, when the penult is long, otherwise on the antepenult.*"

*Sen.* Before answering your question, Miss Meyn, and yours, my dear Tyro, I observe that you assume in your rule a knowledge of several things; as, what a syllable is, when a syllable is said to be long, *etc.*; so that you seem to be saving rather more labor than you really do save; but let that pass.

You ask, Miss Meyn, if I would discard all rules in teaching pronunciation. No, I would not. What I said was, that even the few rules given in books might be omitted, if the teacher is competent. I agree with Tyro that an occasional rule is a saving of time; but I would rather have the learner take it from the teacher at the right time with immediate illustration from the lesson, than have him set to learn it as a preparation for pronunciation. The difference in principle is far-reaching and of great importance. When a boy makes a mistake, it may be assumed that he will be interested to know how to avoid the same mistake in future, and he is in the right state of mind for explanation and a rule. If, then, the sentence just given by Tyro were read correctly, I should not think of explaining why the first word, *Albertus*, has the accent on the penult. But suppose the first sentence of the third anecdote were read: "*Carolus, agricolæ impigrī filius, bonus erat puer, sed amīcōs amābat mālōs,*" and the pupil, guided by unconscious analogy, should read *impi-grī*, with the accent as in *Albertus*, then I would explain why it is that we say *Al-ber-tus*, but *im'-pi-grī*. That is, I would do so sometimes, still trusting a thousand times more to imitation than to rule.

*Miss Meyn.* One thing about the Roman pronunciation puzzles me a good deal. I don't know how particular I should be with pupils in regard to the quantity of vowel sounds; especially to what degree I should insist on a sharp distinction between long and short *u*, long and short *o*. These distinctions my pupils are strongly inclined to neglect, and in unaccented syllables it is not easy for me myself to be exact. What should you advise?

*Sen.* I advise you to trouble yourself very little about the matter. I happen to know of only one teacher, though doubtless there are others, who himself is exact and perhaps exacting

on those points; but he has made a specialty of quantitative pronunciation. It requires, it seems to me, a good deal of careful practice to make the distinctions you speak of in unaccented syllables generally, and it simply is not worth while. Be as correct, be as exact, as you can yourself, with reasonable time and effort, but do not insist on an equal degree of exactness in your pupils. Read much yourself, but for a considerable time do not demand much reading from your class.

*Miss Meyn.* I thank you very much, Mr. Senior. I shall take to heart what you said about the need of constant study; but it is not easy, when one has taught five hours consecutively, read over and marked exercises, and prepared the lessons of the next day, to find time for private study.

*Sen.* No, indeed! Such demands on a teacher are positively cruel. Still one may do a little. I have read that Cardinal Newman was accustomed till extreme old age to turn one sentence a day into Latin. So much one can manage to do even under difficulties, and the gain might not be small.

*Miss Meyn.* May I not come again? I must hear the rest of the paper. Still I am afraid it is very uninteresting to you to discuss these most elementary matters and the details of daily work.

*Sen.* You will be most welcome. No, Miss Meyn, if I should lose my interest in teaching the merest rudiments of Latin, I should think I ought to change my vocation. I have taught—well, it is safe to say, a good many years, but I can still teach a class of little boys the declension of *mensa* with as much interest and pleasure as when I began.

You will come, too, will you not, Tyro?

*Ty.* I shall not fail.

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## A RECENT SOLUTION OF THE GREEK QUESTION.

MANY indications point to the probability that the last decade of the nineteenth century will witness a readjustment of the relations of the Greek language in the educational programmes of Europe and America. One of the elements of the problem is moving rapidly towards its elimination: the question of whether Greek shall or shall not be the prerequisite for admission to the university course of study. Most significant for us on this side of the Atlantic is the movement against it recently developed in England,—that stronghold of the classics,—and ably advocated by the head-master of Harrow.<sup>1</sup> Despite the recent crushing defeat in the Senate of Cambridge University (525 to 185 votes), the size of the minority, taken together with the known sentiment of a large contingent of the ablest masters of the schools that send up to the university, and of the educated public, is a prophecy that the final removal of compulsory Greek is not long to be awaited. Contemporaneously with this question will be foreshadowed, and possibly determined, what position the Greek language and literature is to hold in the colleges and universities themselves. While a more difficult matter to predict from any present tendencies within these institutions, still, from a judgment based upon the inherent value of the study and the fact that so far no distinctly valuable study has ever lost its place in the curriculum of the higher education, we may infer that Greek will continue to be studied in the future as in the past; and, if by fewer persons, the numerical loss will be far more than compensated by the more enthusiastic and fruitful character of the work. It is overlooking too radical differences to class Greek with Hebrew and predict for it a similar position in future courses of study. As the bearer of a rich and varied literature, secular far more than

<sup>1</sup> See *Academy* for February, 1892, and *Contemporary Review* for October, 1891.

religious, to which every modern literature is beholden, we may feel confident that so long as literary study has charms for men, or, in other words, until colleges and universities cease to be abodes of tranquil study of high things and degenerate into mere training courses for the wild chase after bread and butter, the study of Greek will occupy a prominent place among the higher cultural studies.

The present state of unrest is detrimental to the best interests of classical study. It becomes therefore the duty of those who have the fortunes of education in their keeping to recognize a lost cause, — perhaps not so great a loss after all, — and enter upon the hopeful work of reconstruction. It is too much to expect that a final adjustment will be reached at once. Possibly numerous tentative efforts will be made before a satisfactory solution will be arrived at. Meanwhile each contribution from whatsoever source merits attention, especially if it bring to the front some important phase of the problem.

The oldest college in America, so often the leader in important advance movements, took the first step toward readjustment when it, in 1886, made it possible for a candidate to enter for its usual academic degree without Greek. This was, of itself, a bold innovation, against which indignant protests of conservatives have not yet ceased to be heard. Hence it is not strange that, even while extending this boon, Harvard should have coupled it with a restriction in the form of far severer work in mathematics and science to be presented with and as a part of the substitute for the omitted language, — a concession to the classicists, and at the same time an evidence to the public, consoling to the self-love of modernists, that the new departure did not mean a lowered standard of attainment for candidates. Experience has already proven the restriction excessive, for comparatively few choose to enter by the more exacting course. As a result, Greek still enjoys in Harvard College the advantages — and disadvantages — of a "protected" study.

The first of Eastern colleges to follow the lead of our oldest university has recently taken two steps additional, the second of which is of such importance as to warrant the hope that so far

as Tufts College, at least, is concerned, the whole Greek question has found a practical solution. In its satisfaction at this result it may be pardoned a belief that, in its way through the *selva oscura*, it has happened upon the path that others, following on, will soon fray into a road.

In the first place, it has seen no reason why so diverse subjects as mathematics and physical science need be added to the modern languages in furnishing a substitute for Greek. Recognizing the futility of attempting to weigh equivalents as in a balance and say infallibly in advance just how much tolerably hard labor in German or French is equal in disciplinary value to two or three years of harder labor in Greek, yet assuming that a fair equivalent exists, it has adopted a provisional substitute in these languages. In determining this, the college has not been cast upon its single unaided judgment, but has adopted the advanced requirement of the scheme recently reported to the Commission of Colleges in New England on Uniform Requirements, and accepted by the Commission after having received the unanimous approval of a conference of modern language professors representing fourteen New England colleges. Inasmuch as the desirability of making this advanced requirement a fair substitute for Greek in Latin-Scientific courses was constantly in mind with the committee appointed to draft the scheme and was made prominent in the conferences of secondary teachers and college instructors which discussed and modified it, there is ground for belief that it does not differ greatly from what will be shown by experience to be a just equivalent.

The second step is of a much more radical character, and one which, if generally adopted, would more than compensate for any losses that Greek will undergo in ceasing to be compulsory. In arranging the curriculum for the new course men, it was found feasible to make elementary Greek an optional study in Freshman year, as an alternate for the modern language in which the advanced examination shall have been taken. The change in requirements for admission had brought the college into connection with such English high schools as can furnish advanced instruction in the modern languages, the opportunity

for securing a full classical course having been forfeited; this innovation means nothing less than the continuance of that opportunity; in other words, the possibility of postponing for two or three years the important decision whether one will or will not study Greek. Many under the present régime are forced to make this decision prematurely, before their tastes are formed and before their life-work is even foreshadowed; once made, there is little probability, or indeed opportunity, for a change of mind. To many parents this extension of time must prove a great relief; to such students as have lost the early opportunity for beginning Greek and on account of a change of intention have found reason to regret it, the opening of a way to make good their loss cannot fail to be welcome. Actual experience proves that such cases are not purely suppositious.

One of the most interesting results of a study of the situation is the seeming assurance that little, if anything, would be lost so far as relates to attainments in the postponed study. The new course in Tufts College provides for five hours a week of instruction in elementary Greek through Freshman year, or about one hundred and eighty hours. In this time it is considered possible to cover the work of the preparatory school. The student as a Sophomore would then continue his Greek with the next year's Freshman entering upon the old course. As the required Greek continues for two years, he would complete the course at the end of his Junior year and still have the possibility of one year of elective work in the department, — in all, an amount considerably more than the average of what is taken under the present system.

If at the first glance it seems hardly probable that the preparatory Greek could be covered with thoroughness in a single year, a brief consideration of the elements of the problem will show that such an expectation is not extravagant. These consist in (1) the advanced status of the pupil in language work, (2) his greater maturity, (3) the superior quality of the instruction. Let us examine them in turn.

Greek is now usually begun by pupils who have had no language drill beyond what they have got from one or two years'



previous study of Latin. Very frequently before they have gained any facility in reading the difficult Latin, or have even acquired a thorough knowledge of its forms, they begin the still more difficult Greek. To complicate the matter yet more, before the forms of Attic prose are duly assimilated Homeric variations are filtered in. Many of our colleges also requiring elementary French or German, the furnishing of the hurried modicum of this added language towards the end of the course offers a new disturbing element. In view of all this it is really quite remarkable that even so good results are obtained as are shown in the entrance examinations. Let us now suppose the case of a boy proposing to offer advanced French in place of Greek, together with elementary German. French would still follow the Latin, but it would be possible to begin it at an earlier point than the Greek. As a less complex development of the Latin itself, it would prove no serious hindrance to the progress of the pupil in the elder speech, while no teacher fit for his position would fail to make the parent tongue a powerful aid in his instruction in French. An equivalent of four hours a week for three years would probably prove sufficient under good instruction to cover with thoroughness the requirement in French. The elementary German would then be left until the last year, to be covered with the equivalent of three hours a week. In teaching it, the analogies of the English for vocabulary (with word formation), and of the Latin and French for numerous syntactical points, would naturally be made effective. Were the advanced requirement to be taken in German, it might still be wisest to begin the French as before, having it taught in immediate connection with the Latin: then when, a little later on, the German was taken up, the interference would be reduced to a minimum. However experience might determine the wisest order of procedure, it can hardly be doubted that with equally competent instruction better results could be secured in one very difficult and two much less difficult languages than with the numbers reversed.

Now it is upon the ground work that such a course would afford that the Greek language would be begun. What an

immense superiority in his power to acquire the essentials of the new language the youth would possess over the boy who has not yet begun to master the difficulties of the Latin! He has read all the Latin of the preparatory course, of French one thousand pages, chiefly good literature, besides one to two hundred pages of German, or else seven hundred pages of standard German and two to four hundred of easy French. Beside this he has had the study of the grammar of these three languages, with their principles illustrated in composition, in one of the modern tongues to a very great extent. Under ordinary conditions he could hardly have failed of securing a strong hold upon what might be called the sentiment of language, a sort of composite *Sprachgefühl*, the soul of general grammar.

In alluding briefly to the advantages of the maturity of the pupil, I do not forget that many regard this as an obstacle to the easy attainment of a language. It is almost axiomatic to-day in educational circles that the study of the languages should be begun early. But do not the facts admit of a more careful statement? Doubtless the earlier, after the eighth year, one begins language study, the better; but not necessarily as regards the study of any given language. The condition of a mature person for the first time approaching language study is pathetic. It reminds me of some horse-chestnut trees on the college grounds that never had a fair chance; the poor stunted things still live, but are scarcely larger than when I first knew them in 1865. Their capacity for growth was never ministered to when care would have availed; now, under the most favoring circumstances, they can never grow. Such belated students sometimes, in scientific courses, find their way into college class-rooms. Very different is the case of students who began in due season the study of some language and have kept it up. Theirs is the case of the vigorous stock in which new grafts speedily set and flourish. In language the capacity to assimilate grows by what it feeds on. Far surer to build on than the mere capacity for verbal acquisitiveness in the child, and to build with speed,—may I be permitted to speak out of more than twenty years' experience in teaching the modern languages *ab initio* to men

well on in their college course? — is the trained and reasoning acquisitiveness of a bright college student. No doubt a day comes when the power to acquire new vocabularies declines; sooner or later we all go into mourning for it; but surely for most students of language that day is not reached until long after they are out of college. It seems then as if a mind brightened by four years' daily contact with other languages and matured under the influence of two literatures is in an ideal condition to undertake the study of the Hellenic language and literature.

In speaking of the superior quality of the instruction to be furnished, I desire not to be misunderstood. In certain of our secondary schools are notable masters of the art of teaching Greek. Yet, while appreciating their excellent work, we must not forget that in the majority of cases the work of instruction in this delicate language is in the hands of teachers who are anything but experts, many of whom perhaps never read a page beyond what they conned in college, or put together a Greek sentence outside of the manual of composition used — often long used — in their classes. They have never lived into the Greek language; it has never inspired them. How can they inspire others? nay, how can they bring to bear upon their pupils the concentrated rays of systematic and fruitful instruction? Of course, if the scheme were generally adopted, the leading masters of Greek literature in our colleges would not be detailed for this elementary service. The work would fall to adjunct or assistant professors, possibly to a class of instructors to be called into existence by the new situation itself. The college which offers this opportunity must necessarily provide such instruction as would accomplish the work in a single year. Economy of instruction alone would demand it.

Now what objection will be raised to this scheme which presents these hardly questionable advantages? It postpones for two or three years, without loss of power, the critical decision whether or not the most perfect literary course shall be taken; it thereby opens to graduates of the best English high schools the same courses that are open to those of the academies and

Latin schools ; it provides for a higher average of attainment in Greek itself, at least in those colleges which receive students from any but the best-equipped secondary schools, and in so doing snatches victory from seeming defeat when the nominal uncrowning of "the queen of languages" becomes a state necessity. It will doubtless come loudest from within the colleges themselves — a protest that it is derogating from their dignity to consent to teach what has always been taught hitherto in schools of lower grade. But with what color of reasonableness can that protest be maintained when the elements of so many branches of knowledge are taught within college walls ? The dignity of college work depends upon the high intellectual plane of its students and the way in which instruction in whatsoever subjects is meted to their needs. The intrinsic beauty and greatness of the speech of Hellas is beyond the suspicion of a doubt. If for years it has not been regarded beneath the dignity of universities to furnish elementary instruction in the less honored French, Spanish, Italian, and German languages, surely no actual academic majesty can be offended by the introduction of elementary instruction in this most dignified of subjects.

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## A PLEA FOR EXPANSION IN THE TEACHING OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

IN TWO PARTS.

### I.

IT is now several years since Mr. John Richard Green gave elaborate proof of the use that could be made of English literature in interpreting English history, and we still want a similar treatment of American history. Our historians and professors, warped perhaps by some lingering prejudice (inherited from the last century) as to the "dignity of history," are shy in examining the works or even mentioning the names of poets, novelists, essayists, or thinkers and writers in any department of literature, in connection with contemporaneous events in politics, diplomacy, and war. This should not be; in America far more than in England we need to invest the prosaism of our history with the charm of poetry and art. The old French and Indian wars, the long-drawn-out war of the Revolution, the half-hearted struggle of 1812-15, the inglorious Mexican and the complex Civil War, are devoid of the picturesqueness which makes the history of the Middle Ages so attractive to young people; our battles have none of the romantic glamour of Sempach, Cressy, Bannockburn, — not to speak of the classic charm, the heroic elevation, of Marathon and Leuctra. This element we in America must derive from other sources; and it is a quality which no one will despise who is really desirous of interesting young Americans in the story of their native land, and in teaching them to understand and love it.

There is another and a far deeper reason for the parallel lines of study that we urge; it is that literature and art yield us the History of Peace. The minds of men all the world over are becoming dissatisfied with the display of the external affairs of nations, the noise and confusion of war, the intricacies of diplomacy, the

genealogies of princes, partisan conflicts, crimes that clamor for notice, records of treachery, cruelty, and lust ; they are beginning to realize that the story of peaceful endeavor supplies what is lacking, and to find in the study of phenomena neglected until lately the historical culture they crave. This is especially true of Americans, whose cardinal doctrine is the righteousness, wisdom, and beauty of peace as contrasted with the wickedness, folly, and ugliness of war ; our young people, therefore, should learn that the pen, the chisel, and the brush have a higher meaning than the bullet and the bayonet. The outline given by our political and military history should be filled in with the color that literature and art afford ; the external form should be vitalized by internal movement ; the chief emphasis should be laid upon changes in thought and taste. Thus may the subject gain in breadth, interest, moral influence ; indeed, teachers do not yet begin to realize how great is the opportunity afforded by American history for educating the intellect and the emotions, the imagination and the will.

The idea of a history of art here in America may seem fanciful to many, but to those who are acquainted with them the works of Harrison, Bulfinch, Mills, Upjohn, and Richardson indicate five significant epochs in the progress of taste, — periods which may be enriched by study of the paintings of Smybert, Trumbull, Allston, Kensett, and W. M. Hunt, and the many artists whom these names suggest.

A few illustrations may serve to indicate, in a necessarily brief and somewhat desultory way, the interweaving of topics urged above. The ideal in this process is, of course, the reconstruction of history, — the gathering together of the influences that made up the life of past generations, until the past lives and breathes again for us, and we absorb its spirit. This is the broadest and deepest of all cultures, for it comprises all. The realization of any historical era induces intellectual growth in so many directions that attainment of it is worthy of prolonged and patient effort.

It is a great economy of time to go to the original sources ; a few passages of Smith, Hammond, and Alsop, and the open-

ing portion of Bradford's history, with the short autobiography of Thomas Shepard, — all of which could be read in an evening — would give one better insight into the causes of the planting of the colonies, north and south, than could be gained from long and learned disquisitions and hours of lecturing. Nothing can equal for vividness of effect, the working of the mind immediately perceived and the beating of the heart and struggle of the soul immediately felt in spite of the flight of centuries.

The question soon arises, "Can the mysteries of the Puritan faith, and the strange notions of many sectaries, be expounded in the class-room?" They certainly must be, at least in part; the Puritan age, with the Calvinistic doctrines of God and man, theory of church government and mode of worship left out, would be like a corpse from which the spirit is flown. It would be manifestly impracticable to define all the heretical ideas that were rife in that age; but Mistress Anne Hutchinson's doctrine of the union of the Holy Spirit with the soul of the believer might be made level to apprehension. Its results were sufficiently striking, and indeed, cannot be overlooked.

Here should be corrected a certain timorousness of teachers, which springs from a mistaken supposition that their pupils will find such exposition tedious. This does them injustice; young people who have reached years of discretion are really interested in religious conceptions, and quick to apprehend them when simply and clearly put. Even the duller will attend to a description of the external aspect of Puritanism, as shown, for example, in the old meeting-house at Hingham, and in many a New England graveyard, with its carved skulls and cross-bones, winged death's heads and hour-glasses and quaint epitaphs. Would any pace the streets of Boston toward the close of its first half-century, — that is, in Cotton Mather's youth, before the great fire of August, 1678, — the pages of Josselyn will help him to see the crooked, cobble-stoned lanes, the gabled houses, with projecting upper stories, of the little capital: "The buildings are handsome, joining one to the other as in London, with many large streets, most of them paved with pebble-stone. In the high street toward the common, there



are fair buildings, some of stone [and of brick], and at the east end of the town one, among the rest, built by the shore by Mr. Gibbs, a merchant, being a stately edifice. . . . They have three fair meeting-houses or churches, which hardly suffice to receive the inhabitants and strangers that come in from all parts. . . . They have a town-house built upon pillars, where the merchants may confer. In the chambers above, they keep their monthly courts. On the south there is a small, but pleasant common, where the gallants, a little before sunset, walk with their marmaleet-madams till the nine o'clock bell rings them home, when presently the constables walk their rounds to see good order kept." About this time a dancing-school was opened in the town, but it was soon suppressed. There was a ferry between Boston and Charlestown, "worth forty or fifty pounds a year." The harbor was protected by two block-house forts.

"If a man wishes to acquaint himself with the real history of the world," said Emerson, "he must not go first to the state-house or the court-room. The subtle spirit of life must be sought in facts nearer. It is what is done and suffered in the house, in the personal history, that has the profoundest interest for us. In the dwelling-house must the true character and hope of the time be consulted." It is not the least of the services rendered by literature that it leads us into the homes of the people, seats us with them at table, sets them talking for our benefit. And a picture (of fashions in dress, for instance) tells us more at a glance than pages of description could do. By such means we can reconstruct the social life and thus give body to our conception of the time.

Sewall's diary is invaluable in this regard, giving us a picture of the close of the long day of Puritanism in New England. It is unique in literature. Indeed, it is in this country only that the gradual waning of Puritanism and the equally gradual rise of latitudinarianism may be studied; in England, the change was abrupt.

The works of imaginative writers of recent times may be used with much profit in the reproduction of a remote age;

as, for instance, Motley's *Merry Mount*, Hawthorne's *Scarlet Letter*, and Cooper's *Wept of Wish-ton-wish*, for New England (Mrs. Gaskell has written a remarkable tale of the delusion of 1692: *Lois the Witch*); Paulding's *Puritan and His Daughter*, for Virginia and Massachusetts; and Kennedy's *Rob of the Bowl*, for Maryland. Thus may history and pure literature be interwoven.

Robert Beverley, in the fourth part of his history, gives a varied and entertaining description of life in Virginia at the opening of the eighteenth century. There were then in Williamsburg, the capital, three fine public buildings — "the most magnificent in English America"; namely, the College of William and Mary (quadrangular in plan, two sides only were finished); the State-house, and the Governor's house. There were also many brick houses with many rooms on a floor: "They don't covet to make them lofty, having extent enough of ground to build on," — moreover, the high winds that blow now and then "would incommode a towering fabric." The Virginians liked large rooms, for they were cool and comfortable in the summer heats; the windows were "sashed with crystal glass, the apartments adorned with rich furniture." "All drudgeries of cooking, washing, etc., are performed in offices apart from the dwelling houses, which are thus kept cool and sweet." Conspicuous among these outbuildings were the light sheds that sheltered piles of tobacco. Beverley gives many details concerning the clothing, food, and amusements of the colonists; their favorite pastimes were fishing, fowling, and hunting: especially entertaining is the description of a raccoon hunt by moonlight.

Gabriel Thomas the Quaker gives us a view of Philadelphia at the same time as the above; its principal streets were Walnut, Vine, Mulberry, Chestnut, and Sassafras (named for the trees, etc., found growing on the spot by the colonists at their first landing); there were about two thousand houses in the town, most of them "stately and of brick," some of them three stories high. If we may judge from the Penn cottage, the doors were sheltered by projecting hoods. The finest mansion

was the "slate-roof house" (in plan, three sides of a quadrangle) occupied by the Penns. The streets were not paved, and were muddy or dusty lanes, with, perhaps, a narrow foot-path along one side. Penn wished that every dwelling should be surrounded by gardens; so there would be no danger of widely destructive fires. We learn from Thomas that there were "three fairs a year, and two markets every week," and that the commerce of the place consisted of the exchange of "salted pork and beef, grain, peas, beans, skins, furs, and tobacco, for rum, sugar, molasses, silver, negroes, salt, wine, linen, and household goods." "Here is lately built," says he, "a noble town-house, or guild hall; also a handsome market-house, and a convenient prison. . . . They have curious wharves, as also several large and fine timber-yards. There are above thirty carts belonging to the city. Also a curious and commodious dock, with a drawbridge to it, for the convenient reception of vessels." There were rope-walks, malt-houses, breweries, and "many handsome bake-houses for public use."

This gives one a gratifying idea of the flourishing condition of the infant city, in the years just preceding the birth of Franklin, a material prosperity which was to flower forth, shortly after his arrival there, in the first works of distinctly architectural aim to be found anywhere in the colonies. At this later date we discover many social attractions in Philadelphia; there were clubs for young men, fox-hunting, horse-racing; there was a school for instruction in French, dancing, spinet-playing; there were assemblies, where the minuet was followed by a supper of chocolate and rusks.

Some time before the year 1719, Dr. John Kearsley crossed the water from England to Philadelphia, and spent there the rest of a long and useful life. He was made a vestryman of Christ Church that year, and shortly after, when the parish desired to put up a new church building, as he was known to be a connoisseur in architecture he was asked to prepare the designs. The church was erected in 1727, of brick brought from England, in the Wrenish style, — round-headed windows, a low, panelled screen concealing the roof, a Venetian window

at the chancel end, with pilasters on both sides and a high, gabled screen graced with consoles above, — there was nothing to compare with it in English America. It was so much admired that within a year or two Dr. Kearsley was called upon for designs for Independence Hall.

About this time, an awakening ambition for better building is to be noted in other colonial towns; shown in Boston in Christ Church (1723) and the Old South (1730); in Newport, by Trinity Church (1726); while Trinity, New York, was remodelled in 1737. This is the period of erection of many of the fine old family mansions that our architects are reproducing to-day.

As early as 1715, the crusty Scot, John Watson, a painter of portraits, settled in Perth Amboy, and filled his house with pictures now unhappily lost.

The third decade of the eighteenth century is yet more memorable as a period of profound change in thought, — of the transition to Arminianism. At this point, the histories of old New England towns become full of value and suggestion. Thus we read that in 1738 Samuel Osborne, minister of Eastham on Cape Cod, was deposed by a council of half-a-dozen neighboring ministers for teaching the doctrine of Conditional Redemption. Even if we had no such indications of the change, Jonathan Edwards' great work *On the Freedom of the Will* would be a standing proof of the spread of Arminianism, as Dickinson's *Evidences of Christianity* is of the growing spirit of scepticism.

To return for a moment to the progress of art: John Smybert the painter, who came with Bishop Berkeley, was the first of a line of artists which has never been broken. He designed Faneuil Hall, Boston, in 1742. It appears that we have also to thank Berkeley for inspiring with interest in this country a man concerning whom information is much to be desired, — Peter Harrison, our first trained architect, who, after working upon Marlborough's palace at Woodstock, brought to America some of the best ideas of Wren and Vanbrugh, and designed a number of buildings that have been influential in forming the taste of four generations of Americans. In 1749 he sent from his residence in Newport the plans for King's Chapel, Boston; of

which the paired Corinthian columns, vaulted aisles, and swelling chancel were of a magnificence unprecedented in this part of the world. At the same time he was building the Redwood Library at Newport (a Roman Doric tetrastyle amphiprostyle), and in 1759 was called upon for plans for Christ Church, Cambridge. This interesting old edifice, plain though it be without, marks a real advance over King's Chapel in design; it is basilican in plan, and the stately rows of (Roman) Ionic pillars, with their quaint fragments of entablature above, and the deep, semicircular chancel, with its Venetian window, are truly impressive. Here, too, Harrison could satisfy his desire for large, round-topped windows, not being hampered, as at the former church, by the necessity of a gallery. In 1760 he designed the City Hall, Newport, the lower story of which, pierced with round arches, was originally used as a market, the upper, decorated with Ionic pilasters, was rented to dry goods dealers by the town. "As an example of simple construction," says Mr. George C. Mason, "its influence is good; as a work of architecture, — 'art building,' — it is better. Harrison stood high in the ranks of his contemporaries as an architect of the Georgian school."

His influence upon Charles Bulfinch must have been very great, — it is distinctly traceable in his work; thus it was he who planted the seed of organic architectural development in America.

In the literature of the time, it is well to note the efforts of Hallam and of Thomas Godfrey to naturalize the drama among us; and also the birth of humor — though it be not the humor of good taste — as exemplified by the retaliatory ballads of Mather Byles and Joseph Green.

The names of Winthrop and Rittenhouse testify to the flourishing state of mathematical and astronomical science at this time, and Franklin was stimulating interest in the study of electrical and meteorological phenomena.

It would be needless to lay stress on the importance of direct reading of the writers and orators of the Revolutionary era; every one knows that in books like Paine's *Common-Sense* and

Lemuel Hopkins' *Anarchiad* can be found the lively arguments that wound the people up to the Declaration of Independence and to the adoption of the Constitution.

As to the reproduction of the age by fiction, John Esten Cooke's *Virginia Comedians*, Winthrop's *Edwin Brothertoft*, Paulding's *Dutchman's Fireside*, and Cooper's *Red Rover*, depict life just before the Revolution; while *The Spy*, and others, William Gilmore Simms' *Partisan* and *Katharine Walton* (which with *The Yemassee* are his best), and Kennedy's *Horse-shoe Robinson*, give pictures of the war north and south.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

GREENOUGH WHITE.

## EDITORIAL.

SINCE the recommendations of the Association of Colleges in New England were put forth last autumn, though discussion has run high and individual opinions have been fully expressed, the judgment of large masses of teachers has not had adequate expression in resolutions or committee reports formally adopted. The Barnard Club, however, which comprises seventy of the leading male teachers of Rhode Island, made these recommendations the basis of its April meeting. The committee report which preceded the discussion is a cool, dispassionate consideration of the issues involved, and an admirable harmony of conservative and radical opinion respecting the reforms proposed.

This report concurs with the recommendations that elementary natural history be made a substantial subject of study in the lower grammar grades, and physics in the higher grades; but takes the broader ground that nature-study, including in particular the study of plants and animals, of geography, physiology, and physics, should receive attention daily in all elementary grades. It favors, however, to but small extent, "exact measurements" in physics. Concerning mathematics, the committee believe that geometry, — "simply the geometry of observation, intuition, and construction," — together with arithmetic, should occupy the time of a daily recitation during the primary school years and the earlier years of the grammar school course. During the later years of the grammar school course, algebra may be introduced in connection with geometry and arithmetic, the committee think, but algebra should not precede geometry, nor geometry be limited to plane geometry, nor the geometry of demonstration be taught to any great extent in the grammar grades. In reference to the study of French, German, and Latin by pupils of the grammar grades,



the report admits the considerable value of the early study of these languages, but believes that the difficulties in the way of their profitable introduction, even as an option, into grammar grade work, are so great as to render the recommendation of little general value. Certain communities in which there is a strong demand for this instruction may, nevertheless, provide for the study of these languages to the great profit of those to whom the opportunity for such study is given.

The ground thus taken is distinctly the most advanced position on the question yet occupied by any representative body of teachers from the schools as contrasted with the colleges; for this committee embraced two superintendents, one high-school teacher, and two grammar-school principals. The report seems to have been heartily and essentially endorsed by the Barnard Club in the ensuing discussion and vote of adoption, and will undoubtedly meet the approval of a much wider circle of educators.

Among the peculiar features found in the plan of organization of the University of Chicago, one of the most admirable is the dignity with which the secondary department is invested. In the language of the Trustees: "The University Proper will include (1) Academies, (2) Colleges, (3) Affiliated Colleges, (4) Schools." Though at the bottom of this ascending series, as is natural, the Academy is an integral part of the University, exactly as are the College of Liberal Arts and the Graduate School. The Dean of the Academy ranks as a Professor and Dean of the University, and receives precisely the same salary as the Deans of the Colleges. He is also a member of the University Council, which meets at least once a month throughout the year. The same privilege is enjoyed by one member of the Academy Faculty, elected by his fellow-teachers. The Heads of Departments of the University supervise the work done in their subjects in the Academy as in the Colleges and Schools. The quarters, terms, and vacations are the same for all departments, and so are the plans for reviews, examinations, and certificates. In every conceivable point, therefore, the secondary work is

placed on an equality of rank and pay with the collegiate, graduate, and professional work. If the teachers are held in less esteem than the professors, it will be because of personal reasons or the survival of old prejudices, and not because of any distinctions created by the Trustees of the University.

Possibly there are other institutions in which secondary teachers have similar consideration shown them; but, if existent, such cases are not conspicuous. What reason is there to the contrary, however? Why should not the policy of this University be the general policy determining the relation of colleges and preparatory schools and indeed the relative rank of professors and teachers everywhere?

The most obvious reason is the inferior preparation of secondary teachers for their work. There are many principals, and some assistants, in high schools and academies who, for breadth or depth of scholarship, and for skill in training youth, could challenge comparison with college professors; but, alas! there are hosts of others in secondary schools who begin with very inadequate preparation, and who continue in their work without the studious spirit which is essential to intellectual growth. As long as this is true, intelligent men, whether in educational circles or out of them, will make invidious distinctions, and will place professors as a class above teachers as a class. The plan of the University of Chicago is an earnest of greater discrimination in the golden age of education which seems to be dawning. There is great reason to believe that an increasing appreciation awaits successful secondary work, and that any teacher in high school, academy, or schools more private, may win recognition even at the college doors, if he shows himself worthy of esteem.

## NEWS FROM ABROAD.

### ENGLAND.

#### THE UNIVERSITY FOR LONDON.

LONDON, after all, is not to have its Teaching University; and to many this is a severe disappointment. Enemies to the charter have arisen on all sides, and have shown themselves very powerful—and in some instances somewhat unscrupulous. The whole question is to be referred to a new Royal Commission, which means at least a year or two of delay. It is sad to trace the decline of the hopes of the *Journal of Education*, which from the first gave active support to the scheme. In the December number the University Extension Society was warned that “the charter must either be granted or rejected in its integrity; the time for amendments is past. . . . The upsetting of the charter would mean the abandonment of all prospect of a teaching university for the next ten years at the least.” The January number notes that “the tide of opposition to the new Albert University is visibly rising and the issue of the debate of next session by no means certain.” It admits that the provisions of the charter are not complete, but pleads that if “once a foundation is laid the superstructure is comparatively easy,” and that if “the present plans are condensed, no other architect, in this generation at least, is likely to undertake the task.” “We hope and trust that these pleas will prevail.” But the *Quarterly* and *Nineteenth Century* both contained onslaughts on the charter; it was attacked at public meetings and by deputations, and in March the *Journal* can only say that the coöperation of the Gresham Committee and the change of name from “Albert” to “Gresham” greatly improve the chances, giving the university “a worthy historic name in place of a name which suggests music-halls and watch-chains no less than the Prince Consort.” But it is all over now: the political strength lay with the enemy, and the charter is dead. Even its friends, the professors of King’s and University, were not in all cases enthusiastic in its favor. It was remarked that the conditions of admission in the future were not drawn firmly enough, and if a university can ever be created by a document, it must be by one that is well drafted. The connection of King’s College with the Established Church was certainly a weak point. It is true that colleges are to be found in existing universities, such as Keble and Hertford at Oxford, in which similar limitations prevail. But King’s College would

have been half the whole faculty of Arts in the new university, whereas Keble and Hertford would not claim to be more than a much smaller fraction of Oxford. The new Commission will perhaps note the attitude of certain authorities outside London, who give medical degrees and receive a number of students who would attend London medical schools, but that they are repelled by the high standard of the London M.B. Afraid of losing the hope of such gains, these bodies expressed a touching solicitude for the maintenance of the London standard. Altogether, it is not an edifying spectacle, nor one by which English teachers would wish to be judged.

In view of some opinions recently expressed in England, it is interesting to note Professor Goodwin's statement of what is needed to give a solid basis to the education which he thinks now rests on a quicksand. He would like to see Greek and Latin begun earlier, whereas some head-masters in this country think that, in order to secure some sort of uniformity and sympathy in higher education, classics must be postponed. Professor Goodwin apparently desires more severe examination for university honors. Many tutors at Oxford and Cambridge think the "Schools" and tripos rather a hindrance than a help, and that far too much of the best effort of a man's life is spent upon achieving a high place in a class list. "Indulgent parents" are certainly not unknown to us; but we also know another kind, the over-ambitious, who for the sake of early honors and, more often, early prizes and emoluments, put undue pressure upon children not formed by nature after the pattern of John Stuart Mill. It is worse in Germany, owing to the dread of the ruinous three years of military service; but even in England it is not uncommon to find parents who allow and even encourage boys of fourteen or fifteen to sit up to midnight over their home work. *Non potest esse sucus diuturnus*. In these and some other matters a comparison of notes between American and English teachers may be conducive to the virtuous mean.

LONDON, March 15, 1892.

T. W. HADDON.

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## FRANCE.

### INSTRUCTION IN THE HISTORY OF ART. I.

That "life is short; art is long," is a venerable saying, well fitted to the use of the art creator; but for our modern civilization we might add that life is sufficiently long for us to appreciate much more of art, if only we had a more clearly recognized idea of what art really means. As in American schools and colleges, instruction in art in the French public schools has too generally meant a few lessons in drawing and still fewer

descriptive lectures upon some of the great masterpieces, with the doctrinal laying down of the dogmas of a certain school of critics.

Just now, however, it is proposed to reform all this and to add a new course to the curricula of the French Lycées, to be known as "The History of Art." So much attention has this proposition commanded, that a series of articles on the subject has appeared in one of the reviews, attempting to show the uses and the needs of the new instruction. A few talks with present teachers of art and with creative artists themselves prove that it is much easier to theorize about the subject than it will be properly to teach it.

The greatest difficulty, it seems, will be to find professors competent and sufficiently prepared. The selection of the master must not be *a priori*; the matter of instruction is too delicate, and success requires qualities of mind and of initiation very numerous and at the same time very rare. What shall this professor be? Most of all, he must be a man of taste. The reply seems very simple, but it means much. This ideal professor must have been formed by deep literary and historical studies; he should love books of art, should study collections of engravings and photographs, should frequent the museums, not to search there the rare and curious works, but from preference to plunge himself into the contemplation of the finest specimens of sculpture and painting which provoke the delicious sentiment of the beautiful. It will be advantageous if he has travelled, and made long stays at Florence, at Rome, at Paris, at Munich, at Dresden, and even at Athens. He cannot thoroughly understand the masterpieces without seeing them. He will bring back from his artistic pilgrimages, not an erudition of archaeology or of catalogue science, but a delicately refined artistic sense; he will strive not to astonish by the multiplicity of his remembrances, but to captivate by the justness and fineness of his perceptions. He will be a sure and charming guide in the world of art.

But often, instruction in this course must be intrusted, not to a special teacher of art, but to the professors of belles-lettres, or of philosophy, or of history, according to the particular aptitudes and preparation of each of them. The professor of letters would have a tendency to examine the work in itself, the idea that it represents, the degree of perfection of the form; he would see, not the head, nor the torso, nor the body, but the soul, the faith, the passion, the grief, that make art. He would analyze the nature of the emotion which the statue or the picture represents, without preoccupying himself much with schools or methods. He would give the rules of artistic taste and would admire the works of each epoch as they are in greater or less general conformity with the rules. You may be sure that classical art would touch him more than any other. His criticism would be delicate, but might lack horizon.

The philosopher would probably carry to the subject a preconceived system of æsthetics; that would necessarily make each work take its place in some one of the series which he would have determined in advance. He would bend to his neatly co-ordinated classifications the free fancy of the artist. He would take little account of inspiration when it was contrary to his system. His views of art would often be synthetic and would sin by excess of generality. The man of letters would be especially struck with the detail; the philosopher would affect to see only the general tendencies of a school or of an epoch. The one would make art a little too literary, the other would make it altogether philosophical.

The professor of history would succeed better than either in teaching the history of art, other conditions being equal, that is, supposing that these three masters applied to their task the same qualities of taste and the same previous preparation. The historian has no *a priori* system, no implacable rules. He is in the habit of putting himself in the presence of facts, without formulating in advance the laws to which he will conform his researches or his judgments. By the very nature of his daily work he is better fitted to make known the differences of races and of methods of life, to show how intimately art is connected with religious ideas, with private life, with the alternations of prosperity and decadence of a people. The purely historical side of this new subject would be much more clearly put forth by the historian than by any of his colleagues. In the curricula of the French colleges, the two programmes of the history of civilization and of the history of art exactly correspond. It seems best that the study of the triumphal arch and the amphitheatre be the necessary development of the lessons consecrated to the Roman Empire, that the Koran be explained by a knowledge of the mosque. Besides the fact that it is not well to confide instruction to too great a number of professors, there is here an intimate connection. It is probable that here in France the instruction in both branches will be given by the professor of history.

Of no less importance than the professor's competence is his pedagogic aptitude. His success will depend upon the method employed. He must expose general considerations under the simplest form, must abstain as much as possible from technical terms, must attach his explanations to the study of a monument taken for a type, must choose in each period the works which unite the most force and simplicity with the character of artistic beauty; especially must he imbue the mind with the impression of the beautiful. Then he will proceed by a wise selection of types, which he will easily find in Central and Southern Europe. Some, like cathedrals and chateaus, manifest the spirit of an epoch rather than the particular genius of one creator; others carry a strong impression of this author, in which case it will be well to study the biography of the

artist in order to understand his inspiration and the direction that he gave to art. The work of Phidias, of Michelangelo, and of Rubens cannot be separated from the biography of these great men. And so, in varying the nature of the lessons, we shall not risk tiring the mind of the scholar; we shall pass from the description of a monument to the study of the life of a great artist; we shall not fail to make known the manners and the particular conditions of each artistic epoch. By this variety of pictures the pupil will easily be captivated; but all these pictures must be linked together by a sort of invisible chain. Instruction in the history of art, like all other historical instruction, is a demonstration. To show that art, religious at the origin of each new society, becomes more and more laic; that at first unique and universal, it has always specialized since; that it has ceaselessly complicated and refined itself, that it easily becomes restless and tormented, to avoid repetitions and to gain originality; but that especially and always it is in strict relation with the conditions of existence, with the economic and intellectual development of each people; there is the general thread of the course which ought to appear from time to time and which should serve strongly to modify particular judgments and general conclusions.

Thus the student will understand the affiliations of art; how from Egypt and Assyria it was transported by the Phoenicians to Greece and by the Greeks to Rome; how Gothic art was born of Roman art, and Arabian art from the Byzantine; how the enthusiasm for the beautiful, which so profoundly moved the Italians of the fifteenth century, little by little gained France and England and Germany. He will see how art is born, grows, prospers, and falls into decadence according to almost invariable and regular laws. Awkward and childish at the beginning, it forms itself by the study, the imitation, and the more and more idealized interpretation of nature. Then emerge from the crowd some great artists whose genius lights a whole epoch. But thus disciples little by little become merely copyists, slip into emphasis and mannerisms, and no longer exist except by convention.

Instruction thus understood and given will be truly fertile. It will be as important an auxiliary to history as is literary history itself. It will put the young man into contact with the noblest creations of human genius. It will succeed in forming the man of taste.

But for this instruction something is needed besides the professor; there must be books and collections, and they must be used wisely. In the continuation of this article in the next number, we shall indicate what such a library and collection should contain and to what use it should be put.

F. P. EMERY,

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PARIS, 1892.



## GERMANY.

## THE EXAMINATION OF MATURITY.

A striking difference between the old and the new plans of instruction is to be found both in the first step that is made in learning and in the examination that is taken after the sixth year (lower second).

The attendance at Gymnasiums in Prussia in the year 1889-90 amounted to 135,337 students, of whom 20,038 left school at the Easter term. Of these 20,038, only 4105 received the certificate of maturity, which entitles the holder to continue his studies at a University, 8051 the certificate for the voluntary service in the army, which service lasts one year instead of the three obligatory upon others, and 7882 attained neither of these ends. These numbers prove that only 20.5 per cent passed through all the (nine) classes, that 40.2 per cent were content with the certificate for service as volunteers, obtained after the sixth year (lower second), and that 39.3 per cent left school without any positive result. Even if we leave out the last 39.3 per cent, as containing elements unfit for higher schools, we see that only the third part of the rest finished all classes. Two-thirds entered life with a kind of half-education that fitted them for nothing in particular. Government wisely considered a change to be indispensably necessary, and therefore ordered that the grammatical instruction in all foreign languages should be finished with the lower second and that in history, geography, mathematics, and natural history, a certain termination should be attained after the sixth year, while in the native language the pupils must have learned to write a composition correctly on subjects not too difficult. A particular examination must be taken at the close of the sixth year, which entitles those who pass it, either to continue their studies in the three upper classes, or to pass into life with the certificate for the voluntary service. For those who remain at school, the next great end to be attained is the examination of maturity, or for the baccalaureate. Since you have no such examination in America, as I learn from an excellent article in your periodical on English and American School-boys, it will perhaps interest you to know how this is done in Germany and what is required in such an examination.

The examination of maturity consists of two parts, one in writing and the other oral. The board of examination consists of the teachers of the upper first (ninth year) with the college inspector of the province or a professor of a university chosen by government acting as chairman. All the subjects and problems of the written examination must be approved by the chairman before they are given to the pupils, and they are not made known to the examinees till the very day of the exam-

ination. The written examination, which occupies a week, includes German, Latin, Greek, French, and mathematics. In German a composition is required which shall prove that the examinee has learned to think and to work independently. In the three foreign languages, the compositions formerly imposed are dispensed with, and in their stead is required a translation from German into Latin, *etc.*, and *vice versa*. This translation is made without the aid of grammar or dictionary, and the passages must not have been read in the class. In mathematics three problems are to be solved, one arithmetical, another trigonometrical, and the third stereometrical. The papers of the examinees, when corrected and annotated by the examiners, must be sent to the chairman, who has power to raise or to lower the mark according to his judgment.

The written examination over, a conference of the examiners is held, in which they deliberate on those who are to be rejected from further examination on account of insufficient results. A fortnight later the oral examination begins. It lasts but two days. Besides the subjects of the written examination, the oral one includes religion, history, geography, physics, and for those who intend to study theology Hebrew.

In religion the examinees must know the history of the church, especially of the Reformation, and must be able to explain the text of the New Testament. In German they must be acquainted with the history of German literature, particularly with the lives of the greater poets. There is also required a knowledge of Lessing's *Laocoon* and the Hamburgian Dramaturgy, some of Goethe's and Schiller's dramas (*Iphigenie, Egmont, Goetz von Berlichingen, Bride of Messina, Wallenstein, Virgin of Orleans*), and some of Shakespeare's plays. In Latin they must be able to translate without any previous knowledge of the passage, or without having read it in the class, the *Odes, Epistles*, and *Satires* of Horace, the *Germania* and *Annals* of Tacitus, Cicero's *Letters* and *Orations*, and Livy. They must, besides, know something of the lives of these authors. In Greek they must translate selected passages from Plato and Thucydides, Demosthenes' *Olynthiacs* and *Philippics*, Homer's *Iliad*, and some tragedies of Sophocles. In French they have set for them passages from modern historical writers, as Lanfrey, Ségur, Thiers, and Michaud, some modern and some classical dramas, and at least one comedy of Molière's. In history they must know the most important facts from the Thirty Years' War up to the present time with their causes and effects, the historical events in foreign countries that are of importance with reference to universal history, the exact history of Greece and Rome, and the development of Germany in a commercial, social, and political point of view. In geography they are examined on the most important facts of universal and mathemati-

cal geography. (This subject is joined to physics and mathematics.) In mathematics the questions relate to the imaginary magnitudes, the calculation of compound interest, quadratic and cubic equations, the difficult parts of trigonometry and stereometry, the binomial theorem, and conics. In physics the subjects are the theory of heat, undulation, acoustics, optics, magnetism, and electricity.

The great difference between German and English examinations is that in Germany the examiners are the teachers who have instructed the examinees. The chairman only is a stranger to them, and, to prevent any abuse, the chairman must not be related in any way to the headmaster of the school where the examination is held. He is further required to examine personally in some subjects, in order to assure himself that the passages to be translated, or the problems to be solved, during the oral examination were not previously known to the students. In England the board of examiners consists of men altogether strangers to the examinees. This, in itself, renders the matter more difficult, but what makes it incomparably easier is, that all the subjects in all branches of the sciences are made known to the examinees six months in advance. To pass the examination, therefore, requires only a certain degree of energy on the part of accomplished pupils, and a little aid by a so-called "coach" to those less accomplished. With us, long, uninterrupted, and zealous labor by pupils as well as by teachers is necessary to secure an acquaintance with so wide a range of literature and science, and a continual training of the mind from the sixth form to the upper first, in order to secure the solution of the difficult problems in mathematics and physics.

When our young men leave school, they are, I am sure, heartily glad to be released from so much and so continuous work. But this feeling does not last long. They soon come to look back on their school days with a grateful heart, as on a time when they gained the intellectual and moral power successfully to fight the battle of life, — a time when justice prevailed, the righteous were encouraged and praised, and the wicked punished, which, unfortunately, is not always the case in life.

DR. OSCAR THIERGE, N,

*Professor at the Royal Corps of Cadets.*

DRESDEN, March 28, 1892.

## LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

### SPECIMEN OF A PROJECTED *VERBUM ISOCRATEUM*.

*To the Editor of School and College:—*

For a year or so I have been at work upon an index to the verb in Isokrates, and with your consent I should like to present a sample of it and to invite suggestions as to ways by which the practical utility of the book may be increased. Compound verbs, it will be seen, are arranged under their simple verbs. Every compound is also to be given in its proper alphabetical place (with a cross-reference to its elaboration under its proper verb), so as to show all the verbs compounded with a given preposition as well as all the prepositions compounded with a given verb. Giving the essential context will save an immense amount of *Nachschlagung* to users of the book. But is it best to give *meanings*? If these are simple, uniform, and hence obvious, why give them? If they are various and more or less difficult, why intrude one's own ideas, instead of letting each investigator determine the meaning for himself? It is certainly easier and safer *not* to give them. And yet an approximate rendering of more difficult words, such as *ὑπάρχω* and *ὑποτίθεμαι*, may prove helpful to some and not harmful to any.

The text (but not always the punctuation) is that of Benseler-Blass. A— repeats the verb form in question. *Τίθημι* is here presented through Or. 14.

#### *Τίθημι,*

put, place, make (laws), offer or propose (rewards, prizes), etc.

*τίθημι :*

4 145. — *στασιάζειν αὐτοὺς*, I am ready to grant that they, etc.

*τίθησι :*

4 46. *πρὸς γὰρ οἷς* [sc. *ἄθλοις*] *αὐτῇ* —, etc.

*τιθέασι :*

2 11. *ἅπασαι γὰρ αἱ πανηγύρεις οὐδὲν μέρος — τούτων τῶν ἄθλων.*

*τιθέντες :*

3 17. *τὰς μεγίστας τῶν πράξεων παρ' ἀλλήλας —*

*ἔθηκε :*

12 152. *τοὺς νόμους οὓς Λυκοῦργος —*

*θείην :*

5 82. *καὶ — ἂν ἑμαυτὸν οὐκ ἐν τοῖς ἀπολελειμμένοις, ἀλλ', etc.*

*θεῖναι :*

5 25. *τὰ πρότερον γεγενημένα κοινὰ — δίκαιόν ἐστιν*, put down as, count or regard as.

## MIDDLE.

- τίθεσθαι :
- 7 40. [ἐνόμιζεν in § 39] αὐτοὺς . . . πολλοὺς — τοὺς νόμους ἀναγκά-  
ζεσθαι.
- τιθέμενοι :
- 8 50. πλείστους δὲ — νόμους.
- ἔθετο :
- 4 39. πρώτη νόμους —.
- ἐθέμεθα :
- 3 6. νόμους —.
- ἔθεντο :
- 14 31. μόνοι τῶν συμμάχων — τὴν ψῆφον, ὡς χρῆ, etc.  
'Ανατίθηναι, set up, ascribe.
- ἀναθήσουσι :
- 1 37. ὧν γὰρ ἂν ἐκεῖνος ἀμάρτη, σοὶ τὰς αἰτίας —.
- ἀναθεῖν :
- 12 87. ἅπαντες ἂν ἐμοὶ τὴν αἰτίαν —.
- 'Αποτίθηναι, put off.
- ἀποθέσθαι :
- 12 127. τὰ κατ' ἐκείνον ἐπελθόντα χρόνον εἰς τοῦτον — τὸν καιρόν.  
Διατίθηναι, treat or use any one (kindly, etc.) ; make any one  
feel, etc.
- διατιθέντας :
- 12 142. [ἀπείργειν . . . τοὺς . . .] — αὐτοὺς οὕτω πρὸς ἡμᾶς ὥστε, etc.,  
those who cause them (i.e. the Greeks) to have such feel-  
ings towards us, that, etc.
- διέθηκε :
- 12 265. [sc. ἐγὼ] εἶων αὐτὸν οὕτως ἔχειν, ὥσπερ αὐτὸς αὐτὸν —ν.
- διέθεμεν :
- 4 117. οὓς . . . οὕτω —, ὥστε, etc., whom we handled in such style, etc.
- διαθῆς :
- 2 23. ὅπως γὰρ ἂν τοὺς ἄλλους πρὸς σεαυτὸν —, οὕτω, etc.
- 5 79. ὅταν οὕτω — τοὺς Ἑλληνας ὥσπερ ὀρές, etc.
- διαθῶσι :
- 5 38. ἐπὶν δὲ κακῶς ἀλλήλους —ν.
- 14 18. τοὺς δ' οὐ πρότερον παύσονται πρὶν ἂν οὕτως ὥσπερ ἡμᾶς —ν.
- διαθεῖσαν :
- 12 174. (σαφῶς δηλοῦν [inf.] τὴν . . .) τοὺς δὲ κυρίου ὄντας Θεβῶν  
οὕτω —, ὥσθ' ἐλίσθαι, etc.
- διαθέντες :
- 4 113. τὰς αὐτῶν πόλεις οὕτως ἀνόμως —.

## MIDDLE,

treat, use, etc. ; dispose, arrange ; dispose of (=sell).

διατιθεμένων :

- 12 140. τὴν φωνὴν τῶν τὰ μὲν σώματα τὰ σφέτερ' αὐτῶν ἐπονιδίστως —.  
διαθέσθαι :

- 4 9. τὸ δ' . . . τοῖς ὀνόμασιν εὖ — [sc. ταύτας τὰς πράξεις] τῶν εὖ φρονούντων ἰδιὸν ἔστιν.  
 42. πολλῆς ἀπορίας οὐσης τὰ μὲν ὅποι χρή —, τὰ δ' ὁπόθεν εἰσαγαγεῖσθαι.

## PASSIVE,

be treated, used, served, *feel*, etc.

- διατιθέμεθα :  
 10 55. γνώῃ δ' ἂν τις κάκειθεν, ὅσον [sc. τὸ κάλλος] διαφέρει τῶν ὄντων, ἐξ ὧν αὐτοὶ — πρὸς ἕκαστον αὐτῶν, from the way we *feel*.  
 διατίθεσθε :  
 8 14. πρὸς δὲ τοὺς . . . νουθετοῦντας ὑμᾶς οὕτω — (indic.) δυσκόλως ὥσπερ πρὸς τοὺς, etc.  
 διατιθέμενους :  
 8 38. ὁρῶ δ' ὑμᾶς χαλεπώτερον — πρὸς τοὺς ἐπιτιμῶντας ἢ πρὸς τοὺς etc.  
 διετέθησαν :  
 8 79. χαλεπῶς πρὸς ἡμᾶς —.  
 97. οὕτω δὲ φιλοπολέμους καὶ φιλοκινδύνους —, ὥστ' οὐδέ, etc.  
 10 49. δηλον δ' ὡς (how) ἑκάτεροι —.  
 12 250. οὐκ ἂν . . . δυσκόλως πρὸς σὲ —.  
 διατεθῇ :  
 12 160. ἐλπίζοντες, ὅποτέροις ἂν οἰκειότερον —.  
 διατεθείης :  
 11 46. εἰ . . . τοῦτόν τις τὸν τρόπον σοι συνείποι, πῶς ἂν —.  
 διατεθεῖεν :  
 2 44. ὁμοίως ἂν καὶ πρὸς ταύτας [sc. τῶν ποιητῶν τὰς γνώμας] —.  
 4 162. οὐκ ἄδηλον ὡς (how) ἂν —, εἰ . . . ἀναγκασθεῖεν.  
 14 61. αἶ [referring to the dead] πῶς ἂν —, εἰ . . . αἰσθίνω, etc.  
 διατεθῆναι :  
 1 12. οὕτω δὲ τὴν γνώμην οὐ δυνατόν — τὸν μὲν . . . πεπληρωμένον.  
 4 43. ὥστε . . . εὐμενεστέρως . . . — πρὸς ἡμᾶς αὐτοὺς.  
 12 19. (τινὲς μοι ἔλεγον in § 18) ἀηδῶς τινας . . . — πρὸς ἡμᾶς.  
 διαθεΐσης :  
 4 28. Δήμητρος . . . πρὸς τοὺς προγόνους ἡμῶν εὐμενῶς — ἐκ τῶν εὐεργεσιῶν.  
 διατεθέντες :  
 14 37. ταπεινότερον — ἤ.  
 Ἐκτίθημι, set out, expose.  
 5 66. Κύρος . . . ἐκτεθεῖς μὲν ὑπὸ τῆς μητρὸς εἰς τὴν ὁδόν.  
 Ἐπιτίθημι, put upon, impose ; with τέλος, put the finishing touch upon, carry out, etc.  
 ἐπέθηκε :  
 12 51. εἰ τέλος — ν οἷς διανοήθη πράττειν, οὐδὲν ἂν ἐκώλυνε, etc.  
 83. τὸ . . . τέλος ὃ πᾶσι τούτοις — [sc. Ἀγαμέμνων].  
 ἐπιθεῖναι :  
 5 70. πρὶν τέλος — τοῖς πραττομένοις.

- 6 77. ἦν καὶ τέλος — τούτοις ἀναγκασθῶμεν.  
 12 180. [φασὶν (in § 177) Λακεδαιμονίους] τοὺς πλείστους — τῶν κινδύ-  
 νων αὐτοῖς [sc. τῷ πλήθει].

## MIDDLE,

take upon one's self, undertake ; attack.

- ἐπιτίθεσθαι :  
 5 39. σὲ πείθειν ἀδυνάτοις — πράγμασιν.  
 ἐπεθέμην :  
 5 1. — γράφειν τὸν λόγον.  
 ἐπιθέσθαι :  
 2 3. ἐξεῖναι . . . τοῖς ἐχθροῖς — ταῖς ἀλλήλων ἀμαρτίαις.  
 ἐπιθεμένων :  
 12 57. ἀπάντων αὐτῇ [Athens] καὶ τῶν Ἑλλήνων καὶ τῶν βαρβάρων —.  
 Κατατίθημι, put down, deposit.  
 καταθεῖναι :  
 4 180. ταύτας [sc. τὰς συνθήκας] ἡμᾶς ἠνάγκασεν . . . ἐν τοῖς κοινοῖς  
 τῶν ἱερῶν —.

- κατέθετο :  
 10 19. βίᾳ λαβὼν αὐτὴν [Ἑλένην] εἰς Ἀφιδναν . . . —.

Παρακατατίθημι, deposit with one, entrust, etc.

- παρακατατίθεται :  
 6 19. Νέστορι δὲ — τὴν πόλιν.  
 παρακατατίθεσθαι :  
 8 112. ὥστ' ἀναγκάζεσθαι . . . — δὲ τὴν τῶν σωμάτων σωτηρίαν μισθο-  
 φόροις ἀνθρώποις.

Μετατίθημι, change the position of ; change, alter.

- μετατίθει :  
 2 17. τῶν προσταγμάτων καὶ τῶν ἐπιτηδευμάτων κίνει καὶ — τὰ μὴ  
 καλῶς καθεστῶτα.

Περιτίθημι, put around, invest with, etc.

- περιτιθείσαις :  
 12 145. λειτουργίαις . . . τιμὴν δέ τινα — αὐτοῖς [sc. οἷς ἂν προσταχθῶσι].  
 περιεῖναι :  
 4 8. τοῖς μικροῖς (neut.) μέγεθος —.  
 5 78. φήμην . . . ἦν . . . — σοι ζητοῦσι.  
 149. καὶ σοὶ πολὺ μείζω — δόξαν τῆς, etc.

- περιθέντος :  
 12 154. [Λυκούργου in § 153] τὴν δύναμιν αὐτοῖς [sc. τοῖς γέρονσι] —  
 τὴν αὐτὴν, ἤνπερ, etc.

Προτίθημι, Συντίθημι, and Ὑποτίθημι are omitted for lack of space.

ADDISON HOGUE.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI, March 10, 1892.



## REVIEWS.

*General View of the Political History of Europe.* By ERNEST LAVISSE, Professor at the Sorbonne. Translated with the author's sanction by CHARLES GROSS, Ph.D., Instructor in History at Harvard University. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1891. —  $7\frac{1}{2} \times 5$  in., pp. xi, 188. Price, \$1.25.

This is not a book for beginners. The chapters present a series of brilliant generalizations, a rush of allusion, and paragraphs of philosophical reflection which would be unintelligible to the youthful learner. But the work is full of value for the more advanced student, and is suggestive to the teacher. M. Lavissee is master of the art of condensation. His work is a rapidly unfolding succession of bird's-eye views of European history, in which the specific event is left in darkness, while the broad, general outline is made luminous. He sees the Roman church as the successor of the Roman Empire, and laments that the church revived its predecessor and model in the Empire of Charlemagne. "To the living some things in the past seem like impish pranks. One of these pranks was the re-establishment of the Empire, in the year 800, by a priest and a warrior, neither of whom knew exactly what the ancient Empire had been, and what the new one was to be." To this unfortunate revival M. Lavissee attributes the miseries wrought by the long struggle between the Empire and the Papacy, the unrewarded sacrifices of the Crusades, and the demoralization of Germany and Italy. Germany was the Christian frontier. Massed upon its eastern boundary were Danes and the Slavs of Brandenburg and Bohemia; beyond them were the Poles; while behind all these were the great reserves of Paganism, the Letts, Finns, and Russians. On the western side of Germany the unfortunate middle realm of Lorraine and Burgundy was not already so detached from the Empire, and inclined towards France, as the author would seem to imply. The German Empire impressed its stamp upon its heathen neighbors as far as the Russian plains, but its association with Italy and the Italian priest sapped its strength. The discovery of the New World and of the ocean route to India completed the ruin of the German Hanse, as well as of Venice and Genoa. The three nations on the western edge of Europe, — most favorably situated for the new commerce, and already strongly centralized in organization, — Spain, France, and England, overshadowed Central Europe; while on the

eastern side of the Empire, Sweden, Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary attempted a similar growth. These two rows of states, in the west and in the east, became the founders of modern Europe. This modern Europe M. Lavissee divides into three distinct regions: Eastern Europe, whose organization is, he thinks, "the capital fact of modern times"; Western Europe, which was dominated until the Revolution by "matrimonial politics"; and England, which for no very clear reason, is placed by itself. In the domain of the "matrimonial politics" continual wars resulted in the humiliation of France. France revenged itself upon Europe by the Revolution, which conveyed the solvent principle of nationality. "For the kingdom of France was substituted the French nation; in other words, a moral entity for a political expression." To France is primarily due, according to M. Lavissee, the subsequent triumph of nationality in Greece and the Balkan States, in the Low Countries, in Italy and Germany. It is because France believes in nationality that she resents the loss of Elsass-Lothringen. "She believes in the existence of a people's soul." The Rhine provinces have been torn from their spiritual body. Nationality involves isolation, local distinctions. An individualistic philosophy triumphs with the perfection of national unities. Europe has become a heap of irreconcilable contrasts. The outlook seems gloomy to M. Lavissee. "The Balkans and the spire of Strasburg dominate the politics of Europe at the present day." These picturesque generalizations stimulate thought, but they are pervaded by a personal equation which must be taken into account, and they grow more and more inadequate as they enter the field of modern history. It is surely unwise to give to the principle of nationality but a scant century of active operation, and unsafe to ignore the debt that France owes to England for her political philosophy. England has been the school-master of the continent in the usages of representative government. M. Lavissee scarcely recognizes the importance of popular representation in the political history of the last century. Nevertheless, the limits of this bright and instructive essay — for it is nothing more — may not permit a more comprehensive treatment. The translation seems to be admirably done.

CHARLES H. LEVERMORE.

MASS. INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.

*Nature Study for Common Schools.* By WILBUR S. JACKMAN, A.N.B., Teacher of Natural Science, Cook County Normal School, Chicago, Ill. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1892. — pp. 448.

It is a hopeful sign that the phrase "nature-study" is rapidly taking the place of the term "elementary science" in the thought and speech of school men. The two phrases represent widely different ideas and correspondingly widely different practices.

Nature-study describes a process by which children may be led to observe and think and gather material for that classifying and generalizing which constitute true science. Elementary science presents the results of classifying and generalizing, sometimes diluted, sometimes condensed. It may be learned from books, recited in formal exercises, and measured by percentages. It lends itself readily to the machine methods of machine teachers and superintendents, yet it seems to them a questionable addition to what they are fond of calling "an already over-crowded curriculum."

Nature-study is not intended to give young children science, but to make them scientific, to lead them to observe exactly, to define precisely, to classify correctly, to explain rationally. The chief hindrance to the successful introduction of this work into the schools is the fact that the teachers have never studied nature. They have studied all the sciences, but from books, and they have never acquired the scientific spirit. In the midst of natural objects and processes they have neither the seeing eye nor the inquiring mind. It is to such teachers that Professor Jackman's book is dedicated, and if they are willing to be helped, it will help them more than any other book which has yet been issued. The author finds the principles which should guide the teacher in the natural workings of the child mind, — its delights in discovering, its persistence in inquiring (what Wordsworth calls "those obstinate questionings of sense and outward things"), in the scope of its thoughts, wide but not deep, and in the absence of continuity or consecutiveness. On these characteristics he bases his method, — the acquisition of knowledge through the senses by observation and experiment, the study of causes and effects, ranging over the whole field of nature, but without formality in arrangement or succession of subjects or lessons.

The bulk of the book consists of suggestive questions under the names of the sciences, arranged in ten groups in the order of the school months. Each set of questions is preceded by a few practical suggestions, most of them eminently wise and helpful. It is in these questions that the teacher will find the book most useful. They teach him just what he needs to know, — what to look for in nature, how to read the "manuscript of God."

What the teacher has found he can lead his pupils to find, and by reading the books to which the author refers, he can learn the scientific relations of his facts, and can answer the questions which he inspires. In this suggestiveness for private study lies the chief value of the book.

Teachers and superintendents will find in it no help in planning courses of study. There is no suggestion of grading. The calendar arrangement is useful in those lines where the natural phenomena are cyclic — in astronomy, meteorology, botany, and zoölogy; but it is purely artificial

in other lines. Few teachers will agree that the whole circle of sciences should be traversed every month of the school year throughout the school course. What the author criticises as the "linear" arrangement has some basis in philosophy and some decided advantage in practice. The motto which he adopts, "A little child shall lead them," is not wholly sound as an educational maxim. Under an enthusiastic teacher the result of following it would be luxurious wildness rather than fruitful culture. There is another Bible expression which teachers may more safely use: "Train up a child in the way he should go."

When the nature-loving spirit of the Cook County Normal School shall be blended in the right proportion with the more scholastic methodism of the older normal schools, the ideal work will be done, the ideal method be followed, and the ideal book be written.

GEORGE H. MARTIN.

LYNN, MASS.

*Pictorial Astronomy for General Readers.* By GEORGE F. CHAMBERS, F.R.A.S. London, Whittaker & Co.; New York, Macmillan & Co., 1891. — 7 × 5 in., pp. xv, 268.

A book of this size cannot, of course, be intended for an exhaustive treatise; neither is this one apparently meant for a text-book for school use. It is evidently designed for those persons who wish, by private study, to gain some knowledge of the heavenly bodies. The leading facts pertaining to the solar system are well stated. Brief descriptions of the sun, moon, and planets are given, and, in general, the latest discoveries are mentioned. The satellites of Mars and the "canals" of Schiaparelli are mentioned; but, so far as we have observed, there is no allusion to the supposed discovery of the relation which the rotation of Mercury upon its axis bears to its revolution around the sun. "Bode's law" is given, without a hint that it fails in the case of Neptune, unless the use of the expression "relative distances of the older planets" points in that direction. About one-sixth of the book is devoted to the fixed stars, including brief descriptions of the principal constellations. Telescopes and the spectroscope are also described; and a few pages are given to the history and the usefulness of Astronomy.

The reading of such a book as this should be followed by a study of the works of Young, Langley, Newcomb, Holden, and other American astronomers, if one would gain more exact and more extensive knowledge.

While the text has a modern aspect, the same cannot be said of all the illustrations. The use of some of the engravings which first appeared in Hinds' *Astronomy*, nearly forty years ago, brings before us sun-spots in 1836, sun's eclipse in 1851, path of Mercury in 1850, Saturn in 1851, etc., where more modern views would have accorded better with

the date of this book. It is surprising that any publisher should allow such a worn-out engraving as Fig. 117, p. 205, to appear. The reversal of the S in Fig. 83, p. 143, might be the blunder of a modern engraver or printer.

DAVID W. HOYT.

HIGH SCHOOL, PROVIDENCE.

*The Story of the Hills.* A Book about Mountains for General Readers. By Rev. H. N. HUTCHINSON, B.A., F.G.S. With sixteen full-page illustrations. New York, Macmillan & Co., 1892. —  $7\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{4}$  in., pp. xi, 357. Price, \$1.50.

The scope of this little book is indicated by the two subdivisions of its contents, "The Mountains as they are," and "How the Mountains were made." It is written for those who have had little or no chance of personal observation of mountain features, and who have not studied geology at all. In the first part the author considers the relation of mountains to human life, to plants, and to animals. In the second, he describes the collection of the materials of which mountains were constituted, the forces which caused their upheaval, and their subsequent and still-continued change of form. One chapter is devoted to volcanoes, one to mountain architecture, descriptive of the varying forms of mountain ridges and peaks, and in a final chapter he discusses the length of time required to bring the mountains to their present form, though he gives no conclusions on the subject except the general statement that the work has been in progress for millions of years.

The difficulty of making a book of this sort, which should be fairly complete without being too bulky, and which at the same time should be sufficiently full of detailed illustrations to avoid monotony and dryness, has been appreciated by the author and fairly met. The volume is very pleasant reading and the writer accomplishes his object with great success. His reasoning is clear throughout, and his descriptions of places and phenomena are graphic and interesting. For the general reader, however, the value of geographical allusions would have been greater if the author had more frequently taken pains to locate more definitely the places mentioned. He assumes too intimate knowledge of geography on the part of those for whom he proposes to write, few of whom would know where to look for the Diablerets, Leukerbad, Uri, the Bernina, and the Dent du Midi, while the location of the Brocken in Hungary (p. 78) is unpardonable.

While the author acknowledges in the preface his indebtedness to certain authors, he would have done well if he had uniformly indicated by quotation marks what material he copies bodily from their works.

The book is gotten up in very attractive form; the typography is

most convenient and pleasing to the eye. The sixteen phototypes, most of them from excellent photographs, some of them Donkin's, give vivid and lifelike impressions of the most characteristic features of mountain scenery. In spite of the few faults noted above, the book most acceptably fills a place hitherto unoccupied in literature, and cannot fail to instruct the uninitiated and stimulate a desire for further intelligence and wider experience in the study of mountain forms and phenomena.

FRANK W. FREEBORN.

*The Elements of Plane and Solid Geometry.* By EDWARD A. BOWSER, LL.D., Professor of Mathematics and Engineering in Rutgers College. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1891. — pp. vii, 393.

A text-book of which much can be said in commendation and but little in censure is a good text-book. Such a book is Professor Bowser's geometry; and one need feel no hesitation in pronouncing it an excellent class-room work — one deserving rank among the best text-books on elementary geometry that have yet appeared in this country. The selection and arrangement of the subject-matter are most judicious, the figures are good, and the methods of demonstration and construction are in nearly all cases the best that could be chosen. An unfortunate wording occasionally appears, as, for example, in the following definition (p. 11): "The enunciation of a theorem consists of two parts: the hypothesis, or that which is asserted; and the conclusion, or that which is asserted to follow therefrom." The theorem itself consists of the two parts mentioned, but the enunciation does not. Such slips are, however, relatively unimportant, and may be corrected in future editions, as a certain error which seriously marred the first edition has been corrected in the one just issued. One feature of the book which deserves especial mention is the large number, above eight hundred, of original exercises it contains. The most encouraging aspect of geometrical teaching in the United States at the present day is the increasing importance attached to this kind of work. The demand for it has become so imperative that no text-book can ignore it, and hope for more than a scanty measure of success. The exercises here given show great care in their selection; and they are not too difficult for classes carefully trained from the outset to independent investigation.

Within the past few years a class of text-books in mathematics, and other subjects as well, has begun to appear, which deserves special mention and special condemnation. They bear every mark of having been "made to order," perhaps by some hack writer employed and paid by the month or the year for his services. In the department of geometry alone might be mentioned more than one text-book answering to this

description. Mathematical teaching and mathematical progress in America suffer from this cause, and it is a deplorable fact that under our present system of education there would seem to be no immediate remedy for it. Among the sins to be laid at the door of such works the sin of omission is not the least. A number of propositions might be enumerated which geometrical works of this class customarily omit, but this single illustration will be sufficient: "The product of two sides of a triangle is equal to the diameter of the circumscribed circle by the perpendicular let fall on the third side from the vertex of the opposite angle." Such propositions have their own peculiar place and importance, and no text-book can afford to omit them. It is a pleasure to note that Professor Bowser does not omit them. No part of the work which should receive treatment in elementary geometry has been slighted by him, nor on the other hand has anything relatively unimportant received a share of attention greater than is its due.

The vexed question of plane geometry is the question of parallels. In Euclid's treatment of this subject lies the one flaw in the otherwise perfect chain of reasoning which has made him the envy and the model of modern geometers. It is a question about which fierce discussion has raged, and respecting which no absolute statement can be made without fear of contradiction. Euclid's treatment of parallels is based on the following assumption: "If a straight line meet two straight lines so as to make the two interior angles on the same side of it taken together less than two right angles, these straight lines being continually produced will at length meet upon that side on which are the angles which are less than two right angles." This cumbersome and formidable postulate constitutes in the minds of many a serious objection to the full acceptance of Euclid's method, and numerous attempts have been made to escape the difficulty by the invention of other axioms or postulates. The well-known English Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching proceeds from this as a starting-point: "Through a given point only one straight line can be drawn parallel to a given line." This shifts but does not in the slightest degree lessen the difficulty. Professor Bowser, however, appears to think it does, for he follows the English Association in his treatment of parallels, and in his preface acknowledges especial indebtedness to them. There are many reasons why adherence to Euclid's method is preferable, and it is to be regretted that the text-book under consideration does not employ it. But as the time is still far distant when elementary classes will be called upon to consider parallels from a scientific point of view, this can hardly be said to lessen its value as a practical class-room work. As such, it well deserves the liberal share of popular favor which it has already received.



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## RECENT ARTICLES ON SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

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